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The work of American artists has won throughout the world abundant appreciation of its distinction and accomplishment, in portraiture, landscape, symbolical painting, and mural decoration. But in the selection of subjects for the adornment of the walls of school rooms, its value as an educational influence, although not overlooked, seems not to have been fully perceived. It is, to be sure, difficult to choose pictures wisely for this purpose, for the considerations affecting a choice cannot be limited to mere questions of good art and representative periods, — although even on this ground alone American art should be more fully represented in schools than it is. Will a proposed picture interest the boys and girls that are to see it day in and day out? Will they understand it or care whether they understand it? However good the art, if it does not interest the pupil, bare walls, well tinted, would serve as well. This is not to imply that classical or mediæval art should be ignored in schools, but it is true that many examples of it, although excellent in some aspects, fail of effect because they speak a language that our boys and girls do not understand, — because they are painted with feelings and sympathies that are not the feelings and sympathies of American boys and girls of the present day. In European art Justice used to be represented with her eyes bandaged. Edward Simmons paints a Justice for a New York court with eyes unbound and showing clear vision. To a man who asked him why he had thus departed from tradition in this symbolical figure, Mr. Simmons replied, "I think Justice should have her eyes wide open, particularly in the New York Criminal Court House." Which of these two conceptions of Justice will appeal most to the pupils of a school? Examples of independent thought and fresh insight on the part of American artists can easily be multiplied. Our American art is, indeed, full of human vitality, is inspiring in its themes, and speaks the language of our own time. Our boys and girls, with masterpieces of European art before them, should, it is submitted, have at least an equal opportunity of acquaintance with the representative works of American art.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 31, 1904.

The Week.

The President is displaying his usual belated sensitiveness after a rash act—this time in connection with his pension ruling. He has found out that it is of doubtful legality and of an unpopularity not at all doubtful; consequently he is about to rise to explain, so the Washington dispatches inform us. Certain precedents are to be cited, it appears, but the chief defence is that this lesser evil was accepted only to avoid a greater. That is to say, the movement for a general service pension act was getting to be formidable. Congress felt itself too weak to withstand it; the heroic President himself distrusted his own ability to oppose a demoralizing and ruinous measure. So the plan was devised of squandering $14,000,000 in order to prevent the squandering of $80,000,000. The idea that it is the duty of the Chief Executive to prevent all squandering is, of course, obsolete. So, apparently, is also the proverb that, if you give certain people an inch, they will take an ell. Certainly, the sop which the President has thrown to the pension lobbyists will, instead of satisfying them, only whet their appetite for more.

That blessed word Mesopotamia is nothing to "administrative entity." By grace of it, Secretary Hay is able to remain perfectly calm although the American flag is hauled down at Niu-Chwang, under the declaration of martial law by Russia. This would be a deadly insult except for a soothing application of the "entity." All we have to do is to say that we never did think Niu-Chwang a part of either entity or quiddity, and that lets us out. But this grateful calmness at Washington is only a part of a large peacefulness of temper which the impending Presidential election has suddenly imposed on the Administration. It is no longer "policing" San Domingo nor "showing a firm front to Russia." The President's advisers having warned him that another indiscretion in foreign affairs would be fatal to his electoral prospects, he is—for the time being—the meekest and most long-suffering of men.

Admiral Dewey's failure to land in San Domingo had a queer look. There was some desultory firing on shore, but what was that to the hero of Manila? This is to say nothing of his companion in arms, "Loomis, Acting," who, as everybody knows, is ready to eat foreigners alive. But the lame explanation, telegraphed from Havana, is now, however, superseded by a more plausible account. It seems that the doughty Admiral was not aware, until he reached Dominican waters, that our Minister to the black republic is himself a negro. Imagine, then, the consternation on Dewey's ship when Mr. Powell came aboard. Horrid visions of another Booker Washington dinner affrighted the gallant officer. If he went ashore, he would surely have to call upon the Minister; later he might even have to invite him to dine! That was enough to blanch the face which the thunder of the Spanish guns left unmoved. Hence the hasty retreat; hence the strange excuse that a few random bullets had stopped the man who had despised the Manila torpedoes, in right Farragut fashion, and had sailed in to singe the beards of the Dons. No wonder that the Southern papers are chuckling over the way in which one civilian negro put the Admiral of the Navy to flight.

The Panama melodrama is over, and the stage properties are being disposed of. The army of the republic has been reduced to one battalion, and the entire navy is offered for sale. Now may the heroic Panamanian seek the shadow of his own vine and fig tree, and take a well-earned rest. He has labored, but President Roosevelt has entered into his labors, and will look after affairs on the Isthmus. The President may urge noble activity, but the inhabitants of the new republic are predisposed to an existence free from all the little annoyances of everyday life. It would be folly, therefore, for them to strut across their mimic stage and play their little part any longer. Besides, $10,000,000 (the gratuity which this country has dropped in the lap of Panama) will, after all, not last forever. Unless "rigid economies" are practised, independence will not turn out the "good thing" the Isthmian patriots had reason to expect. Panama knows on which side her bread is buttered. Why on earth should she spend her windfalls for police purposes? We are prepared to look after her that way, and also to insure her good sanitation. Her legal adoption by Uncle Sam has not yet taken place, but that is a mere formality, and does not prevent her from "laying down" on the old gentleman.

Since the first explosion in the House over the so-called Bristow report of "charges" against Congressmen, it has been made abundantly clear that the document contained much irrelevant matter indiscriminately printed. In certain cases, obvious injustice was done by giving the names of Senators or Representatives in the index as among the culpable. Several of them have been able to show either that their action had been perfectly correct, or else that it would appear so if all the correspondence were given out. Representative Kitchin, for example, has produced further letters relating to the post-office at Oxford, N. C., which puts the matter in a different light from that of the original report. He asserts that a part of the correspondence in this case was deliberately "suppressed"; but that seems unlikely. It was only another instance of the careless and uncritical way in which the clerks of the Department swept the pigeon-holes and threw the resulting mass at the House. Just how much injustice was done by this we shall not know until the McCall committee tells the whole story, but, on its face, the report was glaring evidence of official ineptitude. Issued by the Postmaster-General, the blame for the ill-arranged affair is technically his, and is one proof more of his unfitness for the office he holds.

Senator Hoar never touches any subject that he does not adorn. His lucid interpretation of the Civil Service law on March 23 possesses all the charm of novelty. The purpose of that measure has hitherto been misunderstood. Senator Hoar says that the old theory that to the victor belongs the spoils had much to commend it. But, like all good things, it was subject to abuses. Appointments were sought not alone on the ground of "political faith," but because of allegiance to the "particular political chieftain." This made the Civil Service law necessary. It was not that academic examinations were needed to find out the fitness of applicants for office. Oh, dear, no! What was wanted was some means of insuring "equal distribution in all parts of the country of Government employment." With the insight of genius, Senator Hoar has got at the very heart of our political situation. A euphemism was needed to reveal to us the real nature of our Quays, Platts, etc. That has now been supplied by the senior Senator from Massachusetts. "Political chieftain" is a term that explains itself. It tells us that politics in this country has reached a state of feudalism. Irresponsible barons have arisen on every side, each with his body of retainers (intent on loaves and fishes), and these "political chieftains" have waged war on each other to the subversion of public interests. The strife has been so bitter that a *modus vivendi* is absolutely necessary, and this is supplied by the Civil Service law. Let us be glad, however, that incidentally the public derives a modicum of benefit from the measure.

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Senator Burton of Kansas appears to be one of the most innocent gentlemen ever indicted. He explains his course with touching simplicity. Do you ask why he took a retainer of $500 a month from a company doing illegal business? Why, he "needed the money." The phrase is his own, and he used it in court apparently without the flicker of an eyelid. Then with what a grace of naïveté all his own Mr. Burton explained how he was but following high Senatorial example! Many Senators made large sums, he understood, by "practising before the Departments," and Mr. Burton was but imitating them. And he was doing it in a very "humble" way. Where they made their $30,000 or $40,000, he was content—for a beginning—with a mere $2,500. One can see how all this will ingratiate Mr. Burton with the Senate. To say that many Senators are as deserving of indictment as he, is a very miracle of tact for a man under a cloud and in need of the sympathy of his colleagues. The jury having convicted him, all the more will Senators not let him off easily for having been guilty of the blunder—worse than a crime—of hailing them as fellow-grafters.

"Of course," said a Republican Senator the other day, in a burst of candor, "we here in Washington are acting like a set of cowards." He was referring to the official programme for an early adjournment of Congress—possibly by May 1 so as to dodge or strangle measures clamoring for attention. He meant particularly the labor bills urged upon Congress. There was the eight-hour project. There was the anti-injunction bill. Both these measures, the Senator admitted, were big with injury and menace; both ought to be fought openly in Congress; both should be made the occasion of laying down sound economic and political doctrine, and of telling the labor unions wholesome if unpalatable truths. But Congress dared neither pass nor defeat the bills. Consequently, the plan was to kill a little more time by having "hearings" in committee, and then suddenly adjourn and skulk away home. The attitude is certainly not heroic—it looks painfully like sneaking away; yet it has the approval of a militant Administration. But it is not even prudent. Nothing is gained by shirking. These labor whimsies have got to be met sooner or later, and the sooner they are met the less formidable will they prove. Temporizing and evasion are the most foolish as well as the most contemptible of policies when it is a case of public mischief that has, in the end, boldly to be fronted, unless it is to be allowed to work havoc in the commonwealth. Putting off work that has to be done merely doubles it. Questions that you refuse to settle when you can, have an ugly way of settling *you* later on.

Politicians are slow to feel the pull of bravery's gravitation. Yet political annals are starred with the names of those who have taken their courage in both hands and compelled admiration even from their opponents. John Stuart Mill having once said that English workingmen were careless about speaking the truth, in minor matters, was challenged therefor on the hustings. He quietly avowed having expressed the opinion, and added that he still held to it. The resulting cheers came from none more heartily than from the laboring men in his audience. An early instance of Mr. Cleveland's clear courage is worth referring to on account of a certain approval it won him. When Governor, he vetoed the popular five-cent-fare bill. One Theodore Roosevelt was then a member of the Assembly, and he rose to say that the Governor's action in withstanding prejudice and pressure had made him ashamed of himself for voting for the bill. Yet Senators at Washington would make cowardice the chief of political virtues!

A new method of limiting production has been devised by the Plumbers' Union at Alton, Ill. Their rule strikes not at scabs, but at bosses. In order that these shall not work, they are bidden under appropriate penalties to wear white shirts while superintending all jobs. Thus the boss, who should be only the cause of work in others, is readily distinguishable from the journeymen plumber, who may work as much as his union lets him. Furthermore, since a stiff shirt is an uncomfortable garment for exercise, careless or perniciously industrious bosses are to be deterred from manual toil by the thought of immaculate collars and cuffs. If there be anything in the evolution theory, the boss plumbers of Alton should gradually assume, with the boiled shirt, the majesty and the manners of our New York floorwalkers. As for the tendency of such an action, it never does any organization good to make itself ridiculous, and this rule for boss plumbers is about as foolish as, say, a requirement of football uniforms for journeymen.

It will not do to let a good thing be carried too far. This is one of the lessons that the labor unions are now learning. The painters in Pittsburgh, who have more logic than humor, have lately found themselves in a pretty plight. Their district council was holding a meeting for the purpose of discussing some new by-laws. When the one fixing the wages of the council's "business agents" at $3.40 a day was read, one of these functionaries jumped to his feet and shouted: "I refuse to work for less than $4 a day!" To quote one report of the meeting, "the remark came like a night attack on Port Arthur." The council learned that there were more things in heaven and earth than were dreamt of in their philosophy. It was $4 or a strike. One member thought to reduce the obstreperous agent to terms by reminding him that "a business agent is no trade"; but all in vain. The aggrieved party secured the support of two fellow-agents. A sympathetic strike was called, and then the union began to review the facts. These were very embarrassing. It was figured that the agents had no right to strike without the union's consent. But, on the other hand, it was their place to investigate and report on their own action. If they saw fit, they might order a sympathetic strike of the whole union. But against whom? What would happen if the dissatisfied agents should form a union of business agents and raise wages? The unions in that case would be bankrupt. As might be expected, $4 a day was found to be a cheap means of escaping from this metaphysical entanglement? The surprising thing is, however, that before reaching this solution of the problem the union did not consider the expediency of "scab" walking delegates.

Possibly most persons will not be able to view the foreign-trade statement for February quite as favorably as do some of the Washington correspondents. It is not clear that "the permanence of prosperity is indicated by the fact that domestic manufactures exported in February, 1904, were greater in value than in any preceding February, and formed also a larger percentage of the total exports than in any preceding February." Great stress is laid on the fact that $38,000,000 of manufactured goods was exported, against $34,000,000 in 1900, the previous banner February, and that for eight months the same class of exports exceeded 1900 by $20,000,000. But unfortunately the prosperity of the country does not depend entirely on its manufactures. Agriculture is still the main source of its wealth, and the Republican enthusiasts seem to forget all about this side of the situation when they discuss the February trade statement. It passes comprehension how a good Republican Administration can see anything to boast of in a report that shows that in a single month total imports increased over $6,000,000, while exports fell off more than $5,500,000. The fact simply is, for one reason and another (chiefly because of speculation in this country), our exports of agricultural products decreased nearly $13,000,000 in February, though there was a gain of about $5,500,000 in the exports of manufactures. To be sure, the aggregate figures for eight months show an increase in exports and a decrease in imports; but the significance of the trade figures is quite as much in what they reveal regarding the present tendency as concerning the past.

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Gov. Warfield's modification of the negro disfranchisement amendment now before the Maryland Legislature is worthy of careful consideration. Waving aside suggested applications of the iniquitous "grandfather clause," he proposes a property qualification of $400 for all voters. This would undoubtedly work extensive disfranchisement of the negroes, but it would be fair to both races. The passage of such an amendment would give Maryland real distinction as a State that had passed special legislation on the negro problem without resort to fraud. Accordingly, we trust that Gov. Warfield's fair and simple proposal will be duly weighed by the Legislature. Its summary rejection, as predicted in the dispatches, would be unworthy of the State that in all its history has conspicuously given examples of political and religious tolerance.

Mayor McClellan continues to speak with no uncertain sound of his determination to put down and keep down open gambling and vice in this city. This is gratifying, and we have no doubt that the Mayor means what he says. But he must be aware, by this time, how great a labor he has on his hands, and how little support he is getting from Tammany. Indeed, it is clear that his course has already produced something like a revolution in Tammany. Murphy is almost broken down in health under the repeated demands for an explanation by angry district leaders. They never expected to be "good" in this way, and the pressure upon them of the gamblers and liquor-sellers whose money they took is getting to be something fearful. None of these things will move the Mayor, as we believe, but they should certainly convey a warning to him. He will have to exercise double care in the choice of his subordinates. Already he has had to get rid of two Tammany police deputies, and the remaining one, McAvoy, cannot follow them too speedily. Between Tammany and decent government a great gulf is fixed. That was asserted before the election, and Mayor McClellan is proving it true after. The Tammany mutterings of insurrection are really a compliment to him; but he should learn from them that vice cannot be held under by vicious men.

After two years of deliberation, the plan for awarding the Rhodes scholarships has been perfected, and the first stated examinations will be held on April 13 and 14 next. Dr. Parkin, representing the trustees, has overcome the difficulty of linking the educational systems of America and the colonies with that of Oxford, by requiring that all candidates shall have passed at least two years in a degree-giving college. These upper classmen will thus be, academically speaking, from a year to two years in advance of the Oxford freshmen. Rhodes scholars, after the difficulty of adjustment is over, should form an intellectual élite. All this is curiously at variance with Mr. Rhodes's will. It was evidently his notion to supply average undergraduates, and not special students. He actually advised that recommendations for athletic, likable, and efficient qualities should count for more than examinations. A pious regard for his wishes leads the trustees to solicit testimonials on prowess and popularity, but it is not to be believed that these will outweigh the examinations, which, by anticipation, are already causing shudders among ingenuous youths, otherwise completely fortified with all manly qualifications. We believe, however, that Dr. Parkin has made a very wise interpretation of his charter. Requiring a certain maturity and preparation in his candidates, he provides against unworthy beneficiaries and insures against the too-ready absorption of the Rhodes scholars in the ruck of Oxford passmen. Mr. Rhodes, had he attempted to execute his own deed of gift, would have been the first to see that grave trustees cannot undertake to find sub-freshmen of conspicuous magnanimity and capacity for leadership. Unluckily, you cannot examine for the qualities that made Mr. Rhodes himself famous.

Premier Combes's bill forbidding all teaching by the religious orders passed the Chamber of Deputies on Monday by the comfortable majority of forty-seven. In debate, the original severity of the act has been somewhat mitigated. Ten years' respite before total suppression—instead of five—is allowed; M. Leygues, Minister of Education, succeeded in saving the schools that prepare for missionary service abroad. But in general the act is likely to achieve its end of forcibly secularizing French education, for the Senate will hardly venture to stand against the anti-clerical passion now so strong in the electorate. M. Combes's bill has been spoken of as the completion of Waldeck-Rousseau's Anti-Associations law of 1901. Nothing could be further from the truth. Waldeck-Rousseau, as he has explained in and out of the Senate, merely desired a discretionary power to use against disloyal or dangerous orders. Combes has practically declared that all the religious orders are disloyal and dangerous, and has secured a wholesale writ of expropriation and proscription. He denies to the Roman Catholic associations what in all free countries is regarded as an inalienable right—that of maintaining schools. A law so subversive of republican principles can be justified only on the theory that the religious orders are actually imperilling the existence of the republic. M. Combes's measure is virtually that of a dictator directed to see that the republic receives no harm.

Very soon M. Combes must defend his Naval Secretary, M. Pelletan, against the gravest charges of inefficiency. It appears that the *enfant terrible* of the Ministry has let the machinery of his department grow rusty. Reduction of the personnel has caused deterioration in the ships and wasting of the stores. Ill-advised changes in cruisers under construction have run up their cost inordinately; appropriations for dockyards lie idle in the treasury for want of engineers to set the work in motion. So long as the bill against the religious orders is preferred business, M. Combes is likely to hold his majority; beyond that all is uncertain; but the disaffection of the Parliamentary Socialists is very likely to centre upon Comrade Pelletan's mismanagement of the navy. Meanwhile, everybody is recalling Léon Bourgeois's epigram on the Naval Minister: "I advised giving Pelletan a portfolio so that the next Government needn't do it; but I never said he should be passed out through the Department of Naval Affairs."

The proposed Japanese war taxes were apparently more than even a patriotic people were prepared for. The Government's programme has in the main received the approval of the leaders of both political parties, but certain features of it have been found grievous. It has been decided that the proposed land tax shall be lowered somewhat, and that the plan to tax salt and silk stuffs shall be dropped. As a result of these modifications, the projected revenue will, it is estimated, be reduced about $5,000,000. The land tax has been bringing in about $24,000,000 annually since 1899, when the rate, owing to the financial necessities of the nation, was increased to 3.3 per cent. on agricultural and village property and to 5 per cent. on city building sites. Salt and silk stuffs have hitherto been exempt from internal-revenue exactions, and the disinclination of the political leaders to make any change is significant. The burdens of the Post-Bellum Programme have told severely on the Japanese people. From 1886 to 1896 the annual tax receipts of the nation increased from about $31,000,000 to about $36,000,000. But since 1896 they have jumped to $79,000,000, an increase of more than 100 per cent. On top of this comes the war revenue measure, which is likely to prove so burdensome that even a $5,000,000 saving is a matter of no light importance. Indeed, the situation is such that it is now proposed to limit the period of the new taxes to one year after the close of the war, although this will not help the sale of the bonds which the Government will sooner or later have to put on the market.

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THE DEMOCRATIC OPPORTUNITY.

The course of events is every day emphasizing the great opportunity before the Democratic party. Never was the longing for an eligible Opposition more pronounced or widespread. Thousands of Republicans are coming reluctantly to believe that what their own party most needs is a sound drubbing at the polls, and are asking with unconcealed anxiety whether the Democrats are likely to offer a platform and a candidate such as the country can hear of without alarm. Under our system of party government, the natural remedy for such arrogance, such corruption, such fierce factionalism as the Republicans are now displaying in office, is to turn them out; and it is mainly a question of the Democrats showing themselves fit to be used as the means of punishment.

So much for the general situation, and for things external to the Democratic organization. Within it, moreover, the occasion is most auspicious for ridding the party of two pests at one shot. Rightly considered, the joined forces of Bryan and Hearst are a great stroke of luck for a sane Democracy. It is not often that a party has so good a chance to renounce publicly the devil and all his works. To repudiate either man mentioned would count for much; to show that it is able to ride over them both, in their unholy alliance, would of itself go far to prove that we have again a Democratic party, clothed and in its right mind.

It is a sure affinity which brings Bryan and Hearst together. Both are essentially self-advertisers. To both, notoriety is the breath of their nostrils. Both exploit their Democracy purely for personal aggrandizement. If Bryan is a firebrand, Hearst is a whole conflagration. He preaches the war of classes. He regards the Treasury precisely as he does his own millions—just so much money more with which to buy political support. Having caught the trick of anarchistic utterance from Bryan, he far outbellows his teacher. Yet Mr. Bryan, in his desperate attempts to sustain his failing fortunes, does not hesitate to strike hands with this vulgar compound of ignorance and recklessness, who thinks that money can gild his infamous career. We had hoped that Mr. Bryan, whose private life has been, we believe, beyond reproach, would shrink from the repulsive contact of a man whose life has been passed in unmentionable licentiousness; but seemingly he will stop not even at that to wreak his vengeance, if possible, and prevent his own threatened submergence.

By seizing the opportunity to defeat this noble pair of brothers, the Democrats would do more than they possibly could in any other way to reassure the country. That would be bringing forth fruits meet for repentance. On the other hand, to stoop to Hearst would be to sink the party almost beyond recovery. Senator Clay of Georgia has truly said that the nomination of Hearst would mean not only immediate disaster, but a stain upon the party's good name which it could not live down in twenty years. Some political sins are unpardonable; and one such would be for the Democratic party to take up with a man who, to say nothing of the foul-smelling trail he has left behind him, would make of a Presidential nomination a huge advertisement of himself and of the disgusting wares he has to sell.

The signs are, on the whole, gratifying. It is obvious that Southern Democrats are not going to touch the Bryan-Hearst pitch. Delegates from New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts will surely be against that combination of dirt and desperation, and will be in a position, first of all, to write the Democratic platform. Let that be made sound and clear, and both Bryan and Hearst will be ruled out *ipso facto*. If they bolt, so much the better. That would furnish the last needed guarantee that the Democratic party had left off the feeding of swine and had set out for its father's house. The hour has, in short, struck for a resolute, energetic, and honest Democratic leadership. The saner men in the party are plainly more awake than they were a month ago to both their peril and their way of escape. Hard work is before them, but it is certain that they can, if they will, go to St. Louis in such force that the fusion of the worst elements will be routed.

DEFINING "POLITICS."

President Roosevelt's letter to the Panama Canal Commissioners is, of course, really a letter to the country. Those eminent gentlemen did not need to be informed so solemnly of their own eminence. They knew, before they were told, that they had been chosen to do a great work; that they are not politicians, but engineers; and that the more business-like and honest their methods, the better will be the result. It is, therefore, the public and not the Commission that the President is taking into his confidence. He wants the people to know that he intends to have the Isthmian canal uncrossed by the trail of politics. The Commission is to be non-partisan, having no relations with the spoilsmen and place-hunters; and its work, accordingly, is to be marked by integrity and efficiency throughout.

This is excellent, and Mr. Roosevelt deserves praise for enunciating these principles, and for acting upon them. But what a reflection it all involves upon the manner of conducting the other large business enterprises of the Government! At Panama, the President says, we are to rule out utterly all political considerations. We do not want to see slackness and waste and corruption stain and check that vast undertaking, so we resolutely exclude politics. Admirable; but how about the other departments of governmental business, where we allow politics to hold sway? If political appointments and political control at Panama would mean bungling and pilfering and a squandering of the nation's funds, do they not imply the same thing at Washington? The conclusion seems unavoidable. Mr. Roosevelt's letter, in fact, appears to contain an accurate if unconscious definition of politics. By its absence we learn what its presence signifies. The President tells his friends indignantly that he is incapable of imperilling the great national labor on the Isthmus by turning it over to the politicians. Yet he is all the while turning over to them much greater and more important business of the Government. Thus, on his own showing, the inefficiency and waste which he is guarding against at Panama he is tolerating at home.

Compare, for example, the Panama Canal with the Post-Office. The former is to cost, say, $300,000,000, and will do a business of perhaps $4,000,000 or $5,000,000 a year. But the Post-Office investment of this country must be far larger, and its yearly business is twenty-five times as great. Yet this department of the Government is steeped in politics. Some of the resulting waste and fraud we have lately seen painfully in evidence. Does the President, however, say a word about applying the same business and non-partisan standards there that he insists upon in building the canal? To be thoroughly consistent, he should have written a letter to Postmaster-General Payne, on that gentleman's appointment to office, of a tenor similar to the one he sent to the Canal Commissioners. Paraphrasing the latter, it would have run about as follows:

"DEAR MR. PAYNE:

"I have appointed you to be head of the Post-Office Department, simply because I think you best fitted for that great task. I have not sought to ascertain your politics. If at any time I feel that you are not rendering the best service which it is possible to procure, I shall disregard my feelings for you and get a better man forthwith. I shall expect you to appoint no man for reasons other than your belief in the aid he can render you, and under no circumstances will you pay the slightest heed to any backing or influence he may have. The expenditures you will supervise as rigorously as if they were being made for a private corporation dependent for its profits upon the returns. Representing neither section nor party, you are to secure the best talent this country affords to meet the conditions as they arise."

The very suggestion sounds like a joke—but why should it? Business is business. What would mean extravagance and delay and peculation and scandal on the Isthmus, will surely mean it everywhere else. Mr. Payne was put into the Post-Office Department purely as a politician, and for the very purpose of letting politics bring forth its perfect work. The

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appropriations mount; the deficit swells; scandals thicken. Why not? Has not the President just explained how the same calamities would befall the canal if he did not keep it out of the clutches of the political looters? A principle of human nature does not alter with a few degrees of latitude. The way to be economical and honest and efficient at Washington is the same as at Panama. Mr. Roosevelt starts back in horror at the thought of surrendering the Isthmus to the spoilers; but he yields them the continent without a qualm.

We have always felt that there was a singular hesitancy in driving home the non-partisan argument. It is admitted, to a certain extent, for cities. The numbers are increasing of men who will say that the affairs of a municipality should be taken "out of politics." The same principle has been maintained in connection with our colonial dependencies as it is now in the case of the Panama Canal. That is, we say that cities must not be despoiled or colonies ravaged by the politician, but that he is to be allowed to wreak his will upon all our larger administrative business! Some day, the American people will wake up to this nonsensical inconsistency. If politics spells waste and plunder, it should be banished from all public business. President Roosevelt, by his innocent confession that corrupt politicians would ruin the canal if he allowed them to get a hand on it, has officially defined politics as a system of wilful waste and incapacity. How long are we going to endure it at home while washing our hands of it abroad?

TO SAVE THE SHORTHORN KINGS.

Mr. John W. Springer, the cowboys' candidate for vice-president, asked at a recent cattlemen's convention why "the producer of meat, who feeds the world," should be singled out for financial destruction. It was only right and proper, he said, that Wall Street gamblers, "who coddle their peewee brains that they can 'buck the tiger' on the stock market," should lose, but that the capable shorthorn king of the prairies should fall before the Beef Trust was pitiable. Speaking of the experiences of the cattlemen in the past year, Mr. Springer said: "Without apparent reason, prices began to drop, and they have gone from bad to worse." At the Texas State convention of cattle growers, which has just closed its sessions at Fort Worth, the same story was heard, with variations. Men buttonholed one another in the hope of making "deals" in cattle, but there were few who cared to buy at any price. Offers of $17 a head for two-year-old steers were the best to be had, though before the packers perfected their combination the same class of stock sold readily for $22. More enthusiastic detractors of the Trust declared that the decline in prices paid to the grower had been as much as 50 per cent., involving a total loss to the country of considerably more than $500,000,000.

Whenever charges like these are uttered by the stock growers, denials are made by the packers. But it is difficult to convince the man of the prairies and stock farms that it is simply the law of supply and demand which regulates prices of live stock. The experience of a ranchman in Indian Territory who, besides owning some thousands of cattle, runs a general supply store, is, however, full of significance for the plainsman's reasoning. This man submitted figures to prove that the price of cattle had decreased to such an extent that he no longer found it profitable to raise them, and at the same time, as a storekeeper, he knew that the prices charged by the packers for canned meats and refrigerated products are higher than when steers were bringing better rates at the Chicago stockyards. The story of the ranchman who went to Chicago with a trainload of fat steers is familiar through having been told before a Congressional committee. This shipper found at the stockyards only one buyer to bid on his cattle, and the price offered seemed absurdly low. He waited a day, at considerable expense, in the hope of getting another offer, but none came, and he was compelled to accept the original bid. Watching the herd after the sale, the ranch-owner saw it divided and partitioned among a number of Chicago packing houses. The ranchman, therefore, concluded that competition among the great packing houses has ceased—a Trust.

The general public shares the quarrel, too. With the prices of live stock far below the normal level, why does the price of meat to the consumer remain at the high level of three years ago, when cattle brought nearly twice as much in the Chicago markets as they do now? Yet, again, whenever the consumers make this complaint in too loud a voice, the packers retort that the blame is not theirs but the wicked retailers'. The retailers, whether of New York or Chicago, point, in turn, to the prices they are charged by the packers. And when the investigators again crowd the packers, and figures are produced to convict the latter, the fault is skilfully shifted to the farmers. It is asserted—as a member of the firm of Swift & Co. stated in a Chicago newspaper—that the farmers found corn too expensive to feed to cattle, and as a consequence an unusual number were sent to market. That is an old argument—too old to convince the cattle owners.

Driven from one argument to another, as they have been, the final stand of the packers has been made on a refreshingly novel contention. It was a yard expert of Chicago who explained that too much prosperity throughout the country has rendered all but the choicest cuts of beef almost unmarketable. For the benefit of the interviewer, the picture was drawn of the country stepping up to the butchers' block and demanding porterhouse and sirloin steaks in abundance, and scorning the 73 per cent. of the carcass that cannot be converted into such delectable cuts. Were the cattle all ribs and loins, it is explained, the packers could manage to extract some profit from what is now a miserably paid industry. But the round steaks and other less desirable parts must be sold at a loss to the packer, though it is somewhat mystifying to learn that what the packers sell to the retailers at 6½ cents a pound is readily sold to the consumers for 12 cents a pound, and sometimes more. Still, it is in line with the great bulk of argument tending to deny the existence of a Beef Trust.

The Atlanta *Constitution* suggests that the desultory and indecisive efforts so far made by the Attorney-General to curb the packers' combine be exchanged for vigorous investigation. As is pointed out, there is little immediate prospect of successful competition by independent packers, and certainly there can be no stimulus towards improving the conditions of cattle raising so long as cattlemen are persuaded that another law besides that of supply and demand rules the markets. If only to save to the country a cowboy running-mate for the President and to preserve a race of "Shorthorn Kings," something ought to be done.

THE FINISHING TOUCHES.

"Whatever is worth doing is worth doing well," is the motto adopted by the Republican organization in this State. The leaders, having made up their minds that New York will go Democratic in November, are resolved that it shall go so completely that nobody can have the slightest doubt or misgiving over the result. This theory, that Gov. Odell and his advisers have resolved that they may as well be killed for a sheep as a lamb, offers the only reasonable explanation of their present attitude.

To specify—the bill to facilitate prosecution of gamblers is finding scant favor among the friends of the Odell machine. In the Senate, Brackett was the chief opponent, and Elon R. Brown ably seconded him. In the Assembly the bill has been sleeping the sleep of the just in the Committee on Codes, and the prospect is that, still unconscious from knockout drops, it may be delivered over to the tender mercies of the Rules Committee in the last days of the session. Indubitably, Richard Canfield would gladly pay from $25,000 to $50,000 to the Republican State Committee if this bill were killed; for, although the proposed law might not enable Mr. Je-

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rome to clap him into Sing Sing, it would put him to much inconvenience and expense. But no amount of money that Canfield can raise could offset the political consequence of smothering Mr. Jerome's darling.

If the bill fail and the Democrats nominate Mr. Jerome for Governor, there will not be enough of the Republican State ticket left after November 8 to hold a wake over. Mr. Jerome could make a campaign that would be, not a whirlwind, but a cyclone. He could pose as the man who was ready to bring even a Vanderbilt on the witness stand in order to convict the richest and most powerful gambler in America. The Vanderbilts could easily make their peace with Gov. Odell's Republican State Committee—they can always exert vast influence near their railway lines. But still the word Vanderbilt is not exactly a trumpet call to the farmers and merchants along the New York Central. On the contrary, the rank and file of both parties would be only too glad to promote a District Attorney who defied the name with which people associate the phrase, "The public be damned."

But, aside from this popular prejudice against a family of capitalists—a prejudice which, however unreasonable, would have great political effect—plain people would feel a highly proper resentment against a party that protected a rich criminal in return for a campaign contribution. If Senator Brackett is so fatuous as to imagine that your average country Methodist, Baptist, or Presbyterian, who is still a Puritan, would cling to the Republicans in the face of such charges, he knows nothing of the force of moral convictions. These church people, who are the backbone of rural Republicanism, would give Jerome as candidate a majority which would recall Cleveland's sweep in 1882. Should the Republican politicians want to widen their experience by being buried under an avalanche, the way to destruction and wisdom lies open before them.

The railroad bills are even more conspicuously cherished by the Republican majority in the Legislature. Already within a week we have had the spectacle of New York delegations going to Albany to save themselves from the rapacity of their own representatives. The bill which virtually nullifies the street-car transfer privilege here at the moment when the fight for it seems almost won in the courts, the so-called relocation bill, which apparently enables the company to move its tracks from one street to another and thus acquire a new franchise, are outrages upon public sentiment in this city. If those measures become law, no amount of campaign literature, no flights of oratory, can ever persuade New York that there has not been a deal between the corporations and the Republican committee, of which Gov. Odell is to be chairman. On no other supposition would the action of the Legislature be intelligible. In an interview a week ago, James S. Lehmaier, an enthusiastic Republican, bluntly declared that nothing could drive more votes away from the Republicans than "a surrender to the unjust demands of the railroad corporations." To-day such a surrender seems not merely possible, but probable.

Men who have profound confidence in the sagacity of Gov. Odell speak comfortably as if their warfare were accomplished: "He's responsible for the result now, and he simply must win or be ruined politically." But the fact is that for Gov. Odell a firm grip on the organization is more important than a victory for either the national or the State ticket. If he can save the Legislature from the wreck, or even one house of it, and can make his control of the machine absolute, he can bide his hour in serenity. Gov. Odell as State Chairman, in a Presidential and State campaign, with vast sums to spend, can make his authority in the party so complete for a long time to come that the result of the next election is a minor matter. The main thing is to tap the barrel; and Gov. Odell and his legislative adherents have their hands on the spigot.

At one time the city of Paris offered a reward for saving a drowning man; and rogues used to agree with the watermen, throw themselves into the Seine, and share the reward. In order to prevent this fraud, the reward was made 12 francs for saving a man and 36 for recovering his body; that is, there was a clear profit of 24 francs in letting him perish. The situation in this State is somewhat the same. Should the Governor, as chairman of the State Committee, be able to demand from the corporations a large and immediate reward for doing their bidding, he may profit more handsomely by recovering the dead body of his party than by rescuing the drowning.

THE ART COMMISSION, 1903.

The Municipal Art Commission has for some years been exercising a jurisdiction no less useful than anomalous. Over the acceptance, location, and relocation of works of art it has had full control since the charter of 1897. This power was extended to such public buildings as the Mayor might designate, and, in the amended charter of 1901, to all municipal buildings costing $1,000,000 or more. That gives the Commission a very substantial veto power. In the year covered in the annual report just issued, the Commission passed upon works of a value of $33,600,000; in about half of the models, designs, etc., submitted to it, it required improvement before final acceptance. In all, it passed upon 117 submissions in 1903, against 64 in 1902 and 23 in the previous four years of its existence. Thus, in the past two years the Commission, which had previously had somewhat nominal functions, has become distinctly a power to be reckoned with.

So far, attempts to override its authority have been unsuccessful. For example, a contractor on the Blackwell's Island bridge attempted to proceed upon plans which, while rejected by the Commission, had been otherwise regularly approved. The matter involved $7,000,000. The court ruled that, as the "Art Commission, . . . vested with the veto power by law, has rejected the original design, that disapproval disposed of it. The bridge could not thereafter be constructed in accordance therewith." If the Commission was fortunate in getting ample confirmation of its powers in this conspicuous case, another test case, that of the Bronx Court House, remains in a less satisfactory condition. It illustrates very well the kind of difficulty this new authority meets.

By authority of the Legislature, the Borough of the Bronx bought a site for the Municipal Court House. A worse location could hardly be imagined. The elevated railroad, high at that point, cuts diagonally across the proposed façade and almost envelops the building. The plans for this expensive structure came from a local contractor and builder, who resigned from the place of Building Superintendent just in time to reappear as the architect of the new Court House. The plans and designs were despicable, whether from the point of view of art or utility, but the Commission preferred to rest its veto chiefly upon the unsuitableness of the site. No important public building, the Commission held, should be erected in such an unfavorable location—especially in the Bronx, where land is yet comparatively cheap. President Haffen made the cause of his devotee, Mr. Garvin (the ex-superintendent and architect to be), his own, and at his instance an opinion was secured from the Corporation Counsel in which the Commission's veto of a site was judged illegal. Accordingly, the attention of the Commission has necessarily turned to the building itself, a model of which has been ordered under the charter provision. Naturally, such solicitude about a mere job—though a $1,000,000 one—has irritated President Haffen and his followers. Never before in the history of the Bronx had anybody interfered with a profitable transfer of real estate, or bothered about the place or looks of a public building. The baffled Haffens and Garvins at once suspected personal animus, and made preposterous charges against prominent members of the Commission. In a recent public hearing Mayor McClellan made short work of this gossip, and practically bade the protagonists of the Bronx produce the model

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as required by law or cease from troubling.

Evidently the Art Commission, thanks largely to the Mayor, more than holds its own with Haffen and Garvin and the old-school political builders of the Bronx; but in the matter of its authority to regulate the site of a public building the question remains open. Mr. Rives's adverse opinion was based upon a literal reading of the charter, which gives no such power expressly. If the power exists it must be obtained inferentially, either as a necessary complement to the powers already conferred in the charter, or as a natural extension of the undisputed right to fix the site for all works of art. Clearly, a fine building may be almost as much impaired by bad location as a statue or a fountain. If the Commission, chiefly in the interest of dignified architectural effect, has the right to veto the plans of public buildings, it should have the cognate right of preventing the handsomest designs from being nullified by unsuitable surroundings.

Were such a power granted through judicial finding or the amendment of the charter, it would bring new and heavy responsibilities upon the Commission which it could fulfil only by co-operation with the various administrative committees of the city. Obviously, it is awkward for the Board of Estimate and Apportionment to acquire a site, only to have it condemned and virtually ordered resold. Under ideal conditions all new sites would be first discussed, and an agreement arrived at. In fact, as the annual report attests, such negotiations are already usual:

> "The work of the Commission has brought it into official relation with nearly every department of the greater city and the boroughs of Manhattan, Brooklyn and the Bronx. Most helpful coöperation has been had from all, of which we have availed ourselves to the utmost by liberal construction of the law providing:
>
> " 'In all matters of which the Commission takes cognizance pertaining to work under the special charge of a commissioner or department, the commissioner having such special charge shall act as a member of the Commission.' "

On the whole, then, the Art Commission has fitted into its untried and difficult functions with surprisingly little friction. Mayor Low turned over more than a hundred discretionary cases to it, where Mayor Van Wyck had submitted none. Mayor McClellan has already manifested his friendliness in very serviceable ways, and Commissioner McAdoo welcomes its counsel on police station sites. An even surer sign of the respect the Commission has won is the gradual but marked improvement in all the plans presented. The mere knowledge that drawings, models, etc., are to be rigorously scrutinized by an expert body, stimulates to their best work many who formerly looked upon the city as their softest client.

FROM WATERLOO TO ST. HELENA.—I.

PARIS, March 8, 1904.

There are as many as three members of the French Academy who devote all their time and efforts to an exact reconstitution of the history of the Emperor Napoleon and of his epic period. M. Frédéric Masson gives us volume after volume on this subject; M. Albert Vandal has written in succession the history of the Russian campaign, the history of the Eighteenth Brumaire and of the transition from the Directory to the Consulate. We owe to M. Henry Houssaye a very interesting and dramatic account of the years 1814 and 1815. Lately, M. Houssaye has followed Napoleon from Waterloo to St. Helena, and described what may be called the political agony of the Emperor.

Three days after his abdication, on June 25, 1815, Napoleon, who had resolved to sail from Rochefort for America, left for the Malmaison, where he intended to remain till the day of his departure should be fixed. He had a small following—only Marshal Bertrand, Generals Gourgaud and Montholon, and a few officers. He found at the Malmaison the Princess Hortense, and received there visits from his brothers Joseph, Lucien, and Jerome, the Duke of Bassano, Lavalette, the Duke of Rovigo. In the evening Gen. Beker arrived. His ostensible mission from Fouché, the President of the Provisional Government, was to see that Napoleon's safety should not be endangered; in reality, he was to watch the movements of Napoleon. Beker was a good and honest man. Napoleon, who understood at once the nature of his mission, told him that he might be tranquil; he would not break the engagements he had made. "If the choice of an officer had been left to me," he said to Beker, "I would have named you, for I have for a long time known your loyal character." He had a long conversation with Beker, and finally said to him: "I am impatient to leave France to avoid a catastrophe of which the odium would fall on the nation." He added: "Let them give me the two frigates which I have asked for, and I will start at once for Rochefort. But it is well that I should reach my destination without falling into the hands of my enemies."

The Malmaison was just what it was when Napoleon lived in it under the Consulate. "It had the same distribution of apartments, the same neo-Grec decoration, the same furniture, the same statuary, the same pictures, and, in the park, the same lawn, flowers, exotic trees." One can well imagine the Emperor's feelings when he found himself in the place which he had inhabited in his youth with Josephine. He spoke of her to the Princess Hortense, to Bassano. "Poor Josephine," he once said; "I cannot get accustomed to being here without her. I always seem to see her coming out of an alley plucking one of the flowers she was so fond of. . . . She certainly was more full of grace than any person I have ever seen." And he had divorced her, the only woman he had really loved. Viewing it at the distance of a century, we can well say that the divorce was a great mistake; it was a turning-point in Napoleon's career. He sacrificed too much to enter into the families of the old sovereigns, and to become a guest at the table of Olympus. The principle of adoption was better adapted to his system of government than the hereditary principle. He had long thought of adopting Prince Eugene, and the history of France would have been very different if Napoleon had not sought, as he did, the alliance with Austria. M. Frédéric Masson insists much in his late volume on the change produced in all the Emperor's plans and in his political conceptions by the marriage with Marie Louise and the prospect of leaving the imperial crown to a son allied to the imperial family of Austria.

Napoleon, as I have said, was very anxious to obtain two frigates to accompany him to the United States. Fouché officially asked the Duke of Wellington for a safe-conduct for Napoleon. Did he hope that Wellington would refuse it? So it was thought by many, who suspected that Fouché only wished to inform Wellington of Napoleon's desire to leave France. Marshal Davout considered the presence of Napoleon at the Malmaison a danger; he was afraid that Napoleon would place himself again at the head of the army. The Executive Committee which had taken the Government of France in hand, decided that the two frigates at Rochefort should be armed to transport Napoleon to the United States, that Gen. Beker should escort him, and that the frigates should leave the port only after the arrival of a safe-conduct.

"The safe-conduct!" says M. Houssaye. "If Fouché, with an ingenuity which it is difficult to suppose in him, had asked for it, he was quite sure now that it could not be obtained. Wittingly or unwittingly, Blücher's aides-de-camp misinformed La Fayette and his colleagues regarding the intentions of the Powers on the subject of the future French Government, but they told the truth on the question of the guarantees which they were determined to exact against Napoleon. The allies wanted to end with 'the perturbator of the world.' "

Metternich wrote to Wellington that "the three sovereigns considered it an essential condition of peace that Napoleon should remain in their keeping." Wellington, in accord with Blücher, said that he would not suspend military operations till Bonaparte was a prisoner. Lord Liverpool judged that "the best thing would be to put Napoleon in the hands of the King of France, who would treat him as a prisoner." Blücher wished simply to execute Napoleon before the Prussian army, "to render a service to humanity" (letter to his wife from Compiègne, June 27). Gneisenau wrote from Senlis (June 29): "If Wellington is opposed to the execution of Napoleon, he thinks and acts like a true Englishman. England owes nobody so much gratitude as this man, since, by the events which he has directed, the greatness and the wealth of England have been augmented. It is not so for us Prussians; we have been impoverished by Napoleon."

Fouché, who was always well informed, arranged matters so as to prevent Napoleon from leaving for Rochefort and to keep him at the Malmaison. He was quite ready to deliver him to the Allies if it was necessary in order to obtain an armistice. If he could obtain no passports, the Emperor preferred to remain at the Malmaison. In vain did his friends beg him to depart. On the morning of June 28, he sent M. de Flahaut to the Executive Committee to ask once more for passports. Flahaut saw the members at the Tuileries, but obtained nothing but angry words from Davout. "General," said Davout, "go back to the Emperor; tell

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him that his presence is an obstacle to any kind of arrangement. He must go; otherwise, we shall be obliged to arrest him. I will arrest him myself." The Emperor was meanwhile taking measures for his departure. Orders were given to make a deposit of three millions in gold with the house of Laffitte, which was to send it to America, to supply from time to time the needs of Napoleon.

The last visitors were arriving: the Duchess of Vicenza, Madame Duchâtel, Countess Caffarelli, Countess Regnaud de St. Jean l'Angely, Talma the actor, whom Napoleon had always admired and protected, Corvisart the surgeon, who gave him a small bottle full of a red liquid. "See," said Napoleon to his valet, "that this bottle be always in one of my garments, so that I may seize it rapidly."

When he was alone, he read a book of Alexander Humboldt's, the 'Journey to the Equinoctial Regions of the New Continent.' He could not remain idle; he said to Monge:

"Idleness would be for me the most cruel torture. Now that I am without an army and an Empire, I see science alone capable of imposing itself strongly on my mind. But to learn what others have done is not enough for me. I want to make a new career, to leave works, discoveries worthy of me. I want a companion who can make me rapidly cognizant of the present state of science. We will together survey the new continent from Canada to Cape Horn, and in this immense journey we will study all the great phenomena of the world."

Monge offered to be this companion; but he was seventy years old. The Emperor thanked him with much warmth.

The Prussians were approaching; they were already near Gonesse. An officer of the National Guard came from Paris hurriedly, and advised the Emperor to be on his guard. He sent a few dragoons on a reconnoissance along the Seine. New instructions were sent by Fouché; he did not wish Napoleon to fall into the hands of the Prussians, and sent word to him that the two frigates at Rochefort were at his disposal. The Emperor made no further objection, and answered that he would leave the Malmaison. He offered, however, to the Executive Committee to play once more the part, not of an Emperor, but of a general, and to arrest the progress of the enemy with the remains of the Guard, not the army corps, which were still intact. The Emperor put on his uniform of the Guard, his boots, his spurs, his sword. He said to Beker: "I promise, on my honor as a soldier, a citizen, and a Frenchman, to start for America on the very day when I have repulsed the enemy."

Beker went to Paris and carried the Emperor's message to the Executive Committee. Fouché entered in a great rage; Napoleon's offer was refused. Carnot and Caulaincourt were silent. Beker retired, with a letter from Fouché to the Duke of Bassano, giving him notice of the refusal. He found the Emperor at the Malmaison, surrounded with officers and horsemen. "These people," said Napoleon to him (meaning Fouché and the members of the Committee), "do not understand the state of things. They will repent having refused my offer." Then he added immediately: "There is nothing now for me to do but to depart." He went to his room, deposited his sword and his military uniform, and put on civilian clothing. He entered the room where Josephine died, and remained alone in it for several minutes. He bade good-bye to his brother Joseph and to Queen Hortense, and made her a present of a diamond necklace. He took leave of the little garrison which had kept guard round him for a few days, and left in a carriage drawn by four horses, with Gen. Bertrand, Rovigo, and Gen. Beker, till he arrived at Rambouillet, where he wished to stop. Not a word was uttered.

Correspondence.

A REPLY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have, until now, maintained unbroken the following rule: Always profit by public criticism, but never answer it. I break this rule for the first, and I trust for the last, time because of the recent communication, headed "A Protest," from the pen of Professor Jameson. This communication concerned Messrs. George Barrie & Sons of Philadelphia, the publishers of 'The History of North America,' of which I have the honor to be the general editor. Its language was of such a nature as to demand a reply from me, although I am but incidentally mentioned in the article.

In the first place, to make my position clear, I desire to state that I have no connection with the advertising department of Messrs. George Barrie & Sons, and I am in no wise responsible for their circulars and pamphlets used to describe 'The History of North America.' I can therefore speak of the matter to which Mr. Jameson takes exception without that personal interest bred of authorship. In the second place, I am prepared to state, after due examination of the advertising matter issued by my publishers, that, aside from the hyperbole considered good trade form and in accordance with the usages of publishing firms, though *personally distasteful to me, I find* little to take exception to. That little consists of three instances. The first does not enter into the present discussion; the second and third involve changes that Messrs. Barrie & Sons consented to make as soon as their attention was called to the erroneous impression that the phraseology of their circulars might create. The two instances to which I refer are: the use of the word "by" instead of "to" in one circular, and the insertion of the words "determined on" or the omission of the words "through a committee" in another circular. I will not attempt to discuss the question whether or no these instances afford sufficient ground for the attack made by Mr. Jameson upon Messrs. George Barrie & Sons. I simply point out the fact that these instances resulted from slips made by the advertising department of my publishers, and were promptly corrected as soon as they were brought to the attention of the publishers themselves.

If Mr. Jameson, or any one of like standing, had stated to my publishers that in his opinion certain words or phrases were erroneous, there is no doubt, judging from my experience with the firm mentioned, that the suggestion would have received prompt, courteous, and complying attention. This would have been the case even if the objection had been so made to impressions created rather than to words printed. Even in the present case the Messrs. Barrie are desirous of removing all valid cause for objection, but such has been the character of Dr. Jameson's letter that though they, at my suggestion, modify their statements, they nevertheless insist upon their right to use the following phrases: "The American Historical Association some time ago, through a committee, favorably considered the question of a comprehensive monographic history" and "Based upon a plan suggested to the American Historical Association." Mr. Jameson has in his protest charged the said publishers with deliberate misstatement and wilful attempt to deceive. The best proof of the *justice of their position is to maintain it in* the face of ill-founded criticism. By so doing they will also demonstrate the erroneousness of Mr. Jameson's attitude. Yet they assure me that they will gladly receive suggestions from interested persons and will carefully consider such communications.

The statements in the advertising matter that have been so vehemently objected to by Mr. Jameson were based, so I am informed by my publishers, upon statements made by me in my General Introduction to 'The History of North America.' In so far as they are so based, they are strictly accurate. It is to be regretted that their strict accuracy is marred by the slips of composition already referred to. The statement made by Messrs. Barrie that the plan of 'The History of North America' is based upon the plan outlined to the American Historical Association is, however, strictly true. The existence of this plan is of record. It had been talked of for some time previous to the Boston meeting of the Association in 1899, but at that meeting definite action was taken, and the matter was referred to a committee "to consider the advisability and feasibility of publishing a monographic history of the United States" (Proceedings, 1899, Vol. I., p. 27). This reference to a committee seems a step nearer to the adoption of a plan for a history "to be issued under the auspices of the American Historical Association" than the action of the Washington meeting spoken of by Mr. Jameson. But a step that led still nearer was taken by this committee, which consisted of Profs. A. B. Hart, Herbert B. Adams, W. A. Dunning, John Bach MacMaster, F. J. Turner, Moses Coit Tyler, and Mr. Charles Francis Adams, for these gentlemen reported favorably upon the project (Proceedings, 1900, Vol. I., p. 18), and resolved to "ask the Council [of the Association] at the Detroit meeting to pass the following proposed vote." This vote embraced, among other provisions, the following conditions—"publications to be made in small volumes," under "an editor-in-chief," and the work to be "a coöperative history of the United States" (Proceedings, 1900, Vol. I., p. 19). Such was the plan proposed to the American Historical Association, such the plan upon which the present history is based, such the claim that is made by Messrs. George Barrie & Sons for their work. Because of these facts, it is evident that the statements made by my publishers are, with the instances rectified, absolutely true.

If Mr. Jameson will read my general introduction to 'The History of North America,' he will find that I plainly set forth the fact of the rejection by the Council of the

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American Historical Association of the proposed plan, which he is quite correct in stating was not mine, and which I may add is nowhere claimed to have been mine. He will also find the following statement:

"This determination of the Council, although at the time it was uttered it gave rise to much adverse criticism, was, nevertheless, the correct one. The members of the Council realized fully the need of a general history. They were heartily in favor of it, but they wisely declined to involve the Association in the determination of those to whom the preparation of the work was to be intrusted or to assume the responsibility for the work, thus condemning all other works after its preparation had been completed."

Continuing, I speak of the fact that the action of the Association unfettered individual enterprise, and then I describe the manner in which 'The History of North America' was carried to a successful conclusion ('History of North America'; Lee; Barrie, Philadelphia, 1904. Vol. I., p. x.). It will, therefore, be seen that I in no way connect the present work with the American Historical Association, nor do my publishers intend so to do. They insist, however, and I am glad to coincide with them, that the present work is based upon the plan proposed to 'The American Historical Association.'

Trusting that this letter will close a controversy which I regret, I am, sincerely,

GUY CARLETON LEE.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, March 24, 1904.

Notes.

Messrs. Harper will shortly publish 'The Gems of the East,' by A. H. Savage Landor; 'Greater America,' by Archibald R. Colquhoun; 'Extracts from Adam's Diary,' by Mark Twain; and 'Memoirs of a Baby,' by Josephine Daskam.

'Physical Training for Women by Japanese Methods,' by H. Irving Hancock, author of 'Japanese Physical Training'; 'Bog-Trotting for Orchids,' by Grace Greylock Niles; 'Norwegian Rambles'; and 'What Handwriting Indicates,' by John Rexford, are in the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons.

'Working with the Hands,' by Booker Washington, is in preparation by Doubleday, Page & Co.

George W. Jacobs & Co. will shortly publish 'Phases, Mazes, and Crazes of Love,' by Minna Thomas Antrim.

In the revival of books to meet the current interest in the Far East two could not be overlooked. Mrs. Hugh Fraser's 'Letters from Japan' (Macmillan) have lost none of their attractive flavor, nor have they become antiquated, in the five years since we first spoke in praise of them. The two volumes of 1899 are now combined in one, with all the profuse and well-chosen illustrations, and with no abatement in elegance of manufacture, the type being large and open. The other work in question is J. Dyer Ball's handy dictionary of 'Things Chinese,' some eleven years old, and now issued in a fourth revised and enlarged edition (Charles Scribner's Sons). For ready reference there is nothing like it (for China), and it is as readable as ordinary dictionaries are not. Besides the alphabetic topical arrangement, there is a pretty full index, too little analytical, however, in parts. A third book, English like the others, and most recent, 'The Mastery of the Pacific,' by Archibald R. Colquhoun (Macmillan), has too obvious a bearing on the present crisis in the western Pacific not to be put forth again. Of this also we have spoken at length and favorably; and it contains, our readers will remember, notable chapters on the "Expansion of the United States" and "The Philippines and the Filipinos," as well as on the Dutch islands, Borneo, and Japan. The illustrations are fine, but the index very inadequate.

Guide-books are equally in season with the foregoing. From Charles Scribner's Sons we have Baedeker's 'Northern Germany' in a fourteenth edition, and 'Central Italy and Rome' in the same stage of revision, which need no comment; and a new edition of 'Philips' Handy Volume Atlas of the World,' edited by E. G. Ravenstein. This tiny volume, with rounded corners, readily slips into the pocket. Each map is attended by a page of geographical data; the maps are as far as practicable uniform in scale, and there is an extensive index. A rigid selection has secured clearness in the lettering. The British possessions have been especially cared for. Four plates are given to the United States.

Misses Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke pursue their laudable handy reproduction of the first folio Shakspere with 'The Merchant of Venice' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). The apparatus of argument, literary illustrations, selected criticism, and glossary constitute much more than half the volume.

The tenth volume of the 'Cyclopædia of Law and Procedure,' edited by William Mack (American Law Book Co.), is, as the publishers very justly say in issuing it, "remarkable in several particulars." It is not only enormous in bulk (to this we have become more or less accustomed in legal publications), but, aside from a few definitions, it is entirely devoted to a treatment of the law of private corporations by a single hand; it is, in fact, a treatise on that subject by Seymour D. Thompson. Mr. Thompson in the last thirty years has been an indefatigable writer and editor, to say nothing of a term of twelve years on the bench of the St. Louis Court of Appeals, nor of his standing as a practitioner today; as an encyclopædist, this volume gives him a rank entirely by himself. It cites some 25,000 cases, and the author is to treat Foreign Corporations in a later volume of the same series. Judge Thompson's qualifications for his task are unusual, and the present volume, where we have examined it, seems very full and useful.

'Tolstoy the Man,' by Edward A. Steiner (The Outlook Co.), is a very surprising book. The publishers state, in an introductory note, that Dr. Steiner spent several months in Russia for the purpose of obtaining material for it; that he not only interviewed Tolstoy, but talked with the latter's intimate friends and his adherents in Moscow, saw many letters which throw new light on the great writer's doctrines and practices, and used other facts obtainable only from Russian newspapers and books. Dr. Steiner himself, in his preface, after a preliminary wholesale condemnation of the Russian Church, which, very obviously, he has never studied and does not understand, adds that he was favored with the use of an unsurpassed collection of Tolstoyana in Berlin, and had sources of other valuable material in Russia indicated to him. Allusion is also made to his having known Count Tolstoy many years ago, and having visited him thrice since the first meeting. After this strong introduction, the reader naturally expects a remarkable banquet of fresh, first-hand observations, sketches, and deductions. As a matter of fact, Dr. Steiner has simply compiled a portrait of the great writer from the latter's published works. All, or practically all, that is original or could not have been obtained from easily accessible works (which Dr. Steiner has quoted from the German, in default of acquaintance with the Russian language), is contained in the first sixteen pages of the first chapter. For anything apparent to the contrary, his knowledge of Count Tolstoy is confined to a meeting of a few hours, twenty years ago, and of about one day (including one night in the Count's house) during his journey of 1903. If that is not the case, and if he knew more, it is a pity that he suppressed it, since (with the scanty exception of the two visits just mentioned, the account, on page 223, of certain "disciples," and Dr. Steiner's perfunctory moralizing) the book is such as any intelligent reader could have compiled on an island of the South Seas from Tolstoy's own writings and what had previously been published about him. The proofreading of names is careless throughout, and puzzling for any would-be student—Tshertkoff and Therkow, for example, being intended to represent the same person, and the Count's eldest daughter being labelled "Tatyana Sevorna" instead of "Lvovna."

The third edition of W. J. Dibdin's 'Purification of Sewage and Water' (London: The Sanitary Publishing Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co.) is, indeed, "revised and enlarged" almost beyond recognition; and in its present form seems to us the best existing summary of the conditions of the sewage disposal problem. Mr. Dibdin himself, when chemist to the London County Council, was among the first to recognize the importance of the bacteria in these processes, pointing out as early as 1887 that the oxidation of the organic materials by the activity of these organisms was their essential feature. The Lawrence experiments of the Massachusetts State Board of Health showed how an almost perfect purification could be secured by intermittent filtration through a layer of sand. It was the English observers, however, who discovered that beds of broken stone or coke furnished ideal conditions for the contact of air, sewage, and films of bacterial growth. Mr. Dibdin is naturally a firm believer in the strictly aerobic process, the so-called contact and trickling filters, since his own work at Barking and at Sutton was along this line. He treats Cameron's preliminary ripening process in the septic tank with somewhat less respect. In general, however, the book is a well-balanced one. The introductory chapters on the chemistry and bacteriology of sewage, on its sterilization and chemical treatment, are sound and helpful. Practically all the important work done in America as well as in England, is considered; the digests of the reports of the Royal Commission and of the Leeds and Manchester experiments being particularly admirable.

'The Grant and Validity of British Patents for Inventions,' by James Roberts,

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M.A., LL.B., etc. (London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.), is designed as a guide for those who desire to take out British patents, and is written from the standpoint of the inventor rather than the lawyer. The first part consists of a clear and sufficiently concise statement of the principles governing the grant and validity of British patents, with special reference to the proper drawing and amendment of specifications and claims. This part contains copious references to the decisions of the courts. The second part consists of abstracts of the leading patent cases, very fully illustrated by drawings which are unquestionably useful for reference. The third part contains the clauses of the numerous statutes now in force relating to the grant of British patents. There is a full index to the decisions cited. The book, which is both large and handsomely made, will be useful to persons desiring to obtain patents in England, although the scope of the somewhat revolutionary act of 1902 remains to be determined by the courts. To lawyers practising in the United States, such a book cannot be of great importance, since the statutes which govern the grant of letters-patent in England and the United States respectively are radically unlike, and the decisions of the courts on the scope and validity of patents consequently repose on widely different principles.

The new wave of romanticism now passing over the whole of Europe has brought with it a renewed interest in what is perhaps the most typical figure of German romanticism of the beginning of the nineteenth century, the poet Novalis. Since Rudolph Haym and Wilhelm Dilthey, some thirty years ago, first laid the foundation for a just appreciation of this wonderful and enigmatic genius, a number of new editions of his works and a large array of critical studies of particular phases of his poetry have borne testimony to his reawakened popularity. The crowning evidence, however, of his ascendency upon contemporary thought is to be found in the work of a Frenchman of German extraction which has just appeared, M. E. Spenlé's 'Novalis: Essai sur l'Idéalisme Romantique en Allemagne' (Paris: Hachette & Cie). This is, beyond all doubt, the most exhaustive, the most profound, and the most artistic view yet given of Novalis's life, personality, and poetic significance. It is a model of impartial and at the same time sympathetic criticism, full of happy characterizations, wide in scope and condensed in expression; in short, a piece of literary research which itself is literature. The most valuable contribution to our knowledge of facts contained in this essay consists in the analysis of the relation between early German romanticism and the religious mysticism and scientific occultism of the end of the eighteenth century. Prof. Henri Lichtenberger, to whom the work is dedicated, may well be proud of such pupils as M. Spenlé and Fernand Baldensperger, whose remarkable study on Gottfried Keller was mentioned in these columns some weeks ago.

The economic development of China, and especially the rich province of Sechuan, is the main topic of the unusually interesting paper by Col. C. C. Manifold in the *Geographical Journal* for March. Here is a region nearly 70,000 square miles in extent, and "supporting the densest population to the square mile that is to be found in any agricultural area in the world; its soil allowing in many places of three crops in the year being taken off the same land. . . . A country with immense industries, holding great deposits of coal, salt, petroleum; and in the older formation of mountains fringing it are to be found copper, lead, quicksilver, and gold." Add a network of navigable rivers. There is already an enormous local trade, which could be indefinitely increased by direct communication with an ocean port. A feasible route for a railway from Burma through Yunnan has been discovered which, with the proposed extension of the French railway from Tonkin and the improvement of the navigation of the Yangtse, will probably secure this in the not distant future. Col. Manifold, who travelled some 9,000 miles in China, remarks on the decay of the Buddhist temples and monasteries nearly all over the land. "Except in Mongolia and Far Western China, little is done for the Buddhist religion now." The personal influence of the officials over the people was shown by the fact that, in an inland city which he visited, the French Lazarist Fathers were unmolested during the Boxer troubles, because the district ruler, "though he had only a few ragged, ill-armed constables to enforce his authority," discouraged any attack on the foreigners or their property. At one point he came upon men who were constructing a new road for the return journey of the Emperor and his court from Hsian-fu to Pekin, in obedience to traditional custom. It was a "very amusing thing to note that all the old obsolete watch-towers, of which there are often five or six to the mile, and which probably for many past reigns had been broken down and out of repair, were carefully covered over with matting, so that their ruined state, though it was known to the Court, should not force itself obtrusively on their notice, for by ancient edicts these towers must be kept in a proper state of repair and defence."

Nigeria was the subject of a paper read at a recent meeting of the Society of Arts in London by the wife of the high commissioner, Lady Lugard, better known as Flora Shaw, formerly head of the colonial department of the London *Times*. After calling attention to the importance of the wise and active development of the tropical dependencies, she gave a sketch of the way in which 500,000 square miles of territory and 20,000,000 people were brought under British control in four years. The means employed were an inconsiderable native force officered by a few whites. The people, however, welcomed them as deliverers from the barbaric despotism of the successors of the Moslem shepherds who conquered them a hundred years before. The tribute, for instance, which they demanded from their subjects was slaves, so that "slaves formed the currency of the empire, and large sums were reckoned not in coin, but in human beings." The result had been the gradual depopulation of the land, and the decay of agriculture and the arts for which the Hausas have been famous since the days when the Saxons still ruled in Britain. No attempt has been made to establish a European form of government, but the Indian system has been adopted of "ruling" through native princes, by the intermediary of a British resident, who, with a small staff of white men, was established at the headquarters of each emir, and who acted as the guardian of the treaty rights conceded in each case by the emir. In less than four years every province in the protectorate had been brought within this scheme." To these officials Lady Lugard paid a high tribute as some of the very best types of Englishmen, whose "fairness and kindness in dealing with native questions and with the individual natives themselves had, perhaps, had more to do with the rapidity and completeness with which our administration had been established in Nigeria than any other single quality."

In a paper read before the Bergen County (N. J.) Historical Society in January, Mr. William A. Linn took for his subject "Baron Steuben's Estate at New Bridge" in that county. The estate in question, on which the dwelling house is still standing, had belonged to a Tory, John Zabriskie, and been confiscated, and was given to Steuben by the State of New Jersey in gratitude for his services in the war of independence, for his use and occupancy during life, but eventually, after a nominal sale at auction, in fee simple. Steuben, however, preferred to live and die on the land grant of the State of New York, and sold the New Bridge estate back to Zabriskie. Mr. Linn, who uses Kapp's biography of Steuben freely for a good summary of his career in two hemispheres, corrects it in the particular that Steuben is said to have refused the New Jersey gift on learning of Zabriskie's being impoverished by the confiscation, and to have interposed on his behalf; the facts being as just set forth.

We are requested to state that the following persons have been elected as the Organization Committee of the American Bibliographical Society: Chairman, Worthington C. Ford, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C.; secretary-treasurer, George W. Cole, Graham Court, No. 1925 Seventh Avenue, New York city; Wilberforce Eames, Lenox Library, New York city; A. G. S. Josephson, John Crerar Library, Chicago, Ill.; and Azariah S. Root, Oberlin College Library, Oberlin, O.

The discovery of radium by Madame Curie, with the assistance of her husband (though Rutherford, who is the first authority on the subject in this country, speaks of her simply as "the discoverer") has had the effect to revolutionize our fundamental scientific ideas to an extraordinary degree. But it has another significance. It is not simply that a member of the sex which has been so rigorously excluded, as a whole, from laboratories, should have had the good luck to make one of the greatest of discoveries, but there is the happy conjunction in this case of a husband who insists that she shall have the credit that is her due. It is reported that one of the coveted distinctions with which France rewards her great men has been declined by M. Curie because it was not offered to Madame Curie as well.

—The April *Century* recognizes the uppermost topic in current interest by printing an article on the great Siberian railway, from the pen of the United States Consul at Antung, James W. Davidson, F.R.G.S. Aside from war interruptions, one may enter a car at Paris and proceed by rail to Pekin in sixteen and a half days—a feat the possibility of which was ridiculed as unworthy

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of serious consideration by a Paris journal less than two decades ago. The distance from Paris to Port Arthur by train is given as 7,299 miles, about eleven-twelfths of it through Russian territory. The plan has been to establish virtually a through service between these points during the coming summer. Accustomed as we have been during recent years to look only upon the darker side of things Russian, it will surprise most readers to learn from Mr. Davidson of the great care with which the Russian Government provides for the welfare of its employees along this railway, even though they be mere Chinamen. With such facts as are here given, one must admit that the hold of Russia upon the Mantchurian territory is not one of mere brute force, but has in it an important element of substantial favors rendered. The luxurious provisions to be made for travellers on the forthcoming "train de luxe," which is to pass over the line weekly, are too numerous to be detailed here, even in outline. Suffice it to say that they surpass anything to be found in existing train service in Europe or America. A paper on "Landmarks of Poe in Richmond," by Charles Marshall Graves, has some very interesting drawings, including St. John's Church (where Poe's mother is buried and where Patrick Henry delivered his famous words, "Give me liberty or give me death"), the Allan house, the Swan tavern, and Duncan Lodge, the home of the MacKenzies.

—The March *Fortnightly Review* contains the discourse on the "Growing Distaste for the Higher Kinds of Poetry" recently delivered by the Laureate before the Royal Institution. By the higher kinds of poetry Mr. Austin means the epic and the dramatic. In stating that most readers turn with invincible repugnance from narrative and dramatic poems of any considerable length, Mr. Austin falls into an error of diagnosis. The difficulty lies not so much in positive dislike as in the fact that even the educated among us, whether of choice or necessity, are caught in the mad whirl of affairs which gives no time for extended reading in the lines of literature in question. A census of those who have never read the 'Canterbury Tales,' 'Paradise Lost,' or the 'Faerie Queene,' would possibly be far less instructive as to the real attitude of educated men towards poetry than a count of those who have gone through life with an earnest desire to read these works, have drawn them from libraries, borrowed them from friends, bought them, laid out detailed plans for their perusal, but have continually allowed themselves to be foiled out of a real pleasure by the cares of this world and the deceitfulness of riches. As to Shakspere, we feel satisfied that the Laureate falls into serious error of fact as well as of explanation. The countless editions of his works which are continually in process of distribution surely indicate a vast number of deeply interested readers, and readers to whom his real element of superiority—imaginative thought and imaginative action—is not especially repugnant, as Mr. Austin would have us believe. The relative infrequency of quotation from the great masters of verse, as compared with times gone by, is not to be attributed simply to ignorance of their works. We are governed largely by fashion in such matters, and it is not the style in the present age to wear one's literary heart upon his sleeve, as of old. Let us not be too ready to assume that all have bowed the knee to Baal. It has recently transpired that a busy scientist, in the rushing Harvard life of the present decade, could give deep thought to the age of good Queen Bess, and express his thought in no bad verse, as verse now goes; perhaps more than we know are giving hidden hours to the great poets of the past.

—'Memorials of Mary Wilder White' (Boston: The Everett Press Co.), compiled by a daughter, Elizabeth Amelia Dwight, and edited by a grand-daughter, Mary Wilder Tileston, makes its principal appeal to relatives and descendants for whom it was originally prepared; but the sub-title of the book, "A Century Ago in New England," hints at a wider circle for which it will have some interest as an evocation of certain aspects of New England mind and character in the closing years of the eighteenth century and the first decade of the next. Two charming silhouettes of Mrs. White confront us with sincere presentments of her dainty loveliness, but suggest a more vivacious disposition than her letters and her diaries disclose. Born in 1780, in 1801 she married a young West Indian planter and went with him to Guadeloupe, arriving at a time of local insurrection. For two years her life was crowded with vicissitudes, her husband and her brother dying, while her own health and safety were precarious. But the interest of her memoirs depends far less upon these stirring times and tragic stuations than upon the subsequent affairs of her quiet widowhood in Concord, Mass., and her life in Newburyport, where she lived after her marriage with Daniel Appleton White in 1807 until her death in 1811. The husband, a classmate of Dr. Channing, became, as Judge White, one of the local celebrities of Essex County. In the recent biography of Horace Binney he showed to better advantage in his mature correspondence than in the "tame extravagance" of his love-letters, herewith produced. But extravagance was in those times the general note, and the letters of the young girl and widow printed here are so stilted in their Johnsonese as to afford us that amusement which their defect of humor inexorably denies. There are interesting glimpses of Buckminster and Channing, and of various Concord people; most notably of Emerson's eccentric aunt, Mary Moody Emerson, with whom the subject of these memorials was intimate, collaborating with her in letters published in the *Monthly Anthology*, and writing her many privately that curiously reflect the tastes, the manners, and the reading of the time.

—'Ethics of Democracy,' by Louis F. Post (New York: Moody Publishing Co.), is, according to the author, a "Series of Optimistic Essays on the Natural Laws of Human Society." From the wording of the dedication to the memory of Henry George, we are led to infer that it is from the Ethics of Democracy that the Natural Laws of Human Society are to be evolved. But what are the Ethics of Democracy? The book is divided into seven parts, which deal with such subjects as "Individual Life," "Business Life," "Economic Tendencies," "Politico-economic Principles," "Democratic Government," and "Patriotism." In the course of it there is a good deal of writing which may almost be called eloquent, and a good deal that is nearly incoherent. The drift of the whole is Socialistic, but there is in it political economy of the most systematic kind, and political writing of a sound sort. The difficulty is that the author seems unable to distinguish what is sound from what is unsound, and the result is that we have a jumble rather than a book. The essay on Imperialism, for instance, contains a very clear statement of the anti-fatalist view of history; that on Trial by Jury supports the absurd idea that a verdict, however ridiculous, is sacrosanct, and that a judge who expresses his opinion of it commits a crime "worse than contempt of court," because it is a crime "against democratic government." In the same way, Mr. Post has some good general statements supporting the view that political economy is a science of *tendencies;* but in a chapter on "Our Foreign Trade" he solemnly assures us that "our swelling export balance" is largely composed of "tribute" in the shape of rents paid to alien owners of American lands for which "nothing comes back"—a view of our situation which would seem, if believed, to show that there is no hope for us. Indeed, Mr. Post compares our case with that of Ireland. As to public debts, he declares Repudiation to be a "sacred right," qualified, however, by the fact that it must neither be "dishonestly exercised" nor "dishonestly neglected." On the whole, it may safely be said that Mr. Post is not a guide to be implicitly followed, and that those who accept him as a teacher will find it exceedingly difficult to calculate to what conclusions he may not lead them.

—Mr. George E. Littlefield's account of 'The Early Schools and School-Books of New England' is mainly a description of the various text-books in copies of which he has found evidence that they had been used by children who in later years did their part towards developing in eastern Massachusetts what Dr. Crothers calls its "deeply rooted prejudice in favor of intelligence." For nearly forty years Mr. Littlefield's book-shop on Cornhill has been the haunt of Bostonians who care for the history of their town, and into it have come the attic clearings of a thousand-odd New England housewives anxious to get rid of the accumulations of their predecessors. While searching through these for the treasure which every bibliophile is always hoping to find in some pile of old books, Mr. Littlefield long ago realized that the school-books which his fellow bookmen regarded as the veriest junk had an importance all their own, and by no means insignificant. They were the conclusive evidence of how New England got its education. Possessing the inherent Bostonian sense for the historical aspect of things, he began to collect these tattered and torn remains of schoolboy struggles, to look into them for the dates which show when the owners of the scrawling signatures were using the books, and to search for other evidence which would prove when the popular text-books were first brought over from England, how long and how extensively they were used, and what influence they had upon the curriculum and the pupils. These gatherings give a very unusual value to the volume in which they are brought together. It is a contribution of considerable

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importance to the historian of American education, and it would be most unfortunate if its aristocratic seclusion in the rare company of the "Club of Odd Volumes" publications should result in its being overlooked by those who are making that subject their especial study.

—The Japanese Government, through the Imperial Cabinet's Bureau of General Statistics, has sent forth its annual publication on the 'Movement of Population in the Empire of Japan' during the year 1900. The work is an elaborate quarto of 354 pages. The preface, title-page, heads of columns, and tables are in French. The addition of Romanized letters, with the Chinese script and Arabic numerals, make this work of easy consultation, as well as of high interest to the student of vital statistics. Under thirty-four categories, with the most careful classification of sex, age, and place, is given information concerning birth, death, marriage, divorce, diseases and registry. Expert medical knowledge and statistical skill have been employed upon the work throughout, which, however, does not present the total of the population of the Empire (now about fifty millions), for this is not the publication of a census, which hereafter is to be decennial in point of time and very elaborate as to methods of inquiry and publication. Incidentally this work disposes of some curious notions recently set forth, not only by newspaper writers, but even by medical and literary men of repute who, having been in Japan more or less remotely in the past, have not kept up with the movement of population and events. For example, it has been recently stated that *kakke* (beri-beri), which was formerly confined to the low-lying districts at the mouths of rivers, has been, because of improved means of communication by railways and steamers, converted into a national scourge, and will more than decimate the Japanese armies abroad during the coming springtime. As matter of fact, *kakke* has been so far eliminated from the Japanese navy that, as a rule, it is only the old and experienced surgeons who have treated a case on shipboard. The very minute tables of diseases, covering 95 pages, shows that in the whole Empire, excluding Formosa, there were in 1900 but 6,500 deaths from this disease, a figure which, it is safe to say, is scarcely one-tenth of what the facts would have shown fifty, possibly even twenty, years ago. Another ridiculous statement, made by a supposed high authority in London, a gentleman who had flitted through Japan, is that the Mikado's army was virtually controlled by the two clans of Satsuma and Choshiu, and that quarrels between the various clansmen were very common. This not only is untrue, in a nation that threw the whole clan system overboard thirty-four years ago, but is disproved by the facts of to-day. These tables follow the same plan that is used in enlistments and in furnishing commissions to officers, in that the procedure is for the most part not according to the legal or ancestral domicile, but according to the real place of business or residence. In a word, clans and clan "influence" exist only in memory. The subject-matter of longevity, as revealed by the tables, presents interesting phases, but space does not allow further notice of this highly creditable publication.

LORD ACTON'S LETTERS.

Letters of Lord Acton to Mary Gladstone. Edited, with an introductory memoir, by Herbert Paul. With two plates. London: George Allen; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1904. Pp. 353. Cloth, 8vo.

An interesting Introduction to these Letters makes us better acquainted with a remarkable character which has hitherto been somewhat misunderstood. Lord Acton has been commonly regarded as a prodigious reader, a vast collector of books, an unrivalled storehouse of learning, prevented by some peculiarity in his character and perhaps by his very overfulness of knowledge from giving his erudition to the world in a book. Lord Acton's passion for reading and accumulation of learning, especially historical and religious, could not be overstated. It was calculated by a friend that he devoured on an average an octavo volume a day. It was true, also, that he disappointed the world by not writing a great book. Books, however, are not the only vehicles of knowledge and thought. Lord Acton contributed largely to periodical literature, lectured with great effect as Professor of History at Cambridge, and thus exerted no small influence on the literary and intellectual life of his time. Nor was he by any means a recluse. He took an active interest in public affairs, was for six years a member, though rather a silent member, of the House of Commons, and so versed in foreign politics that at one time there was an idea of sending him as Ambassador to Berlin. He was very social, a good talker as well as a lively correspondent, and a first-rate judge of cookery and wine.

The present volume contains only Lord Acton's letters to Miss Mary Gladstone, now Mrs. Drew. But he opens himself freely on leading questions, both of Church and State, as well as on his special literary subject, the treatment of history. He writes, as he says himself, "in serene confidence to the most chosen of correspondents." His idea of history, to speak first of his special line, appears to have been that it should be philosophic, dealing essentially, not with personal character and action, but with the ideas and spirit of the age; or with personal character and action only as revelations of ideas and spirit. The ruling influence he takes to have been always fundamentally religious. To get a great corpus of history written on this principle in its application to successive periods appears to have been his aim in organizing the composition of the "Cambridge Modern History," an enterprise the result of which is doubtful, not only because the narrative is unavoidably dry, but because it seems hardly possible to get a set of minds sufficiently in philosophic unison to carry on the vast narrative in the same spirit and from the same point of view.

The practical answer to this vexed question as to the proper mode of treating history seems to be that there are different modes of treating it, each good in its way as being adapted to a particular class of readers. The philosophic mode alone commends itself to a grand expert like Lord Acton. But, to be read by people in general, the narrative must be lively, and it can hardly be lively without being personal. The one historian of whom, in these Letters, Lord Acton speaks with unqualified admiration is Stubbs. Stubbs is worthy of unqualified admiration in his way as a master of profound and accurate erudition; but ordinary readers would find it a weary task to plod through those three incomparable volumes. Nor is it likely that, when they had accomplished the task, a vivid impression would be left upon their minds. Lord Acton vilipends Carlyle as an historian, and in a less unqualified way Macaulay. Those writers have their defects, undoubtedly, though Carlyle can hardly be taxed with failing to portray the spirit of the age with which he deals. But the ordinary reader surely has learned from both of them a great deal of history—history in the main true—which he never would have learned from a narrative of the English or the French Revolution on anything like the method of Stubbs.

In politics Lord Acton was a Liberal, inclining, apparently, sometimes rather to the aristocratic, sometimes to the democratic, side of the party. He is always for liberty, of which he projected a History—an arduous undertaking, and, if completed, a bulky affair it would have been. He is for a House of Lords, on the ground that the elective house is always varying with the changing moods of the people, and that something is required to temper the violence of the variations. But the question is whether the action of the House of Lords is really regulative. Lord Acton says it represents the land. He should rather have said that it represents the landowner.

If Acton is chary of admitting the personal element in history, he is not chary of admitting it in politics. His admiration, or rather adoration, of Mr. Gladstone is unbounded. He says that when our descendants shall stand before the slab that is not yet laid on the monuments of famous Englishmen, they will say that Chatham knew how to inspire a nation with energy, but was poorly furnished with knowledge and ideas; that the capacity of Fox was never proved in office, though he was the first of debaters; that Pitt, the strongest of ministers, was among the weakest of legislators; that no foreign secretary has equalled Canning, but that he showed no other administrative ability; that Peel, who excelled as an administrator, a debater, and a tactician, fell everywhere short of genius; and that the highest merits of the five, without their drawbacks, were combined in Gladstone. Gladstone was a great and memorable statesman. The meed of honor justly due to him is ample enough. The only proceeding of his hero in which Lord Acton can find any fault is his obituary eulogy of Disraeli, which, no doubt, involved some inconsistency, and had better have been pronounced by the Speaker or by the leader of Disraeli's party; but the leader of the House could not help himself; he had to play his official part. Of Disraeli's distinction there could be no doubt. These Letters unluckily do not extend over that period of Mr. Gladstone's life when he had coalesced with Parnell and was struggling to carry Home Rule.

Saving his personal devotion to Gladstone, Lord Acton's view of politics is independent, and some original and weighty remarks will be found scattered over these Letters. Of the United States he says,

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defending extended suffrage against his opponents:

"They will admit much of my theory, but then they will say, like practical men, that the ignorant classes cannot understand affairs of state, and are sure to go wrong. But the odd thing is that the most prosperous nations in the world are both governed by the masses—France and America. So there must be a flaw in the argument somewhere."

His opponents might demur to the case of France, and with regard to America they might point to sources of prosperity far other than political. Having made a special study of the American Constitution "in the amplitude of its safeguards and in its fatal want of elasticity," he observes that a "monarchy cannot be too Constitutional, but a Constitutional republic is a difficult thing to work." In one of his lectures he expressed a hope that the United States would not undertake the government of Mexico, observing that "a confederacy loses its true character when it rules over dependencies, and a democracy lives a threatened life that admits millions of a strange and inferior race which it can neither assimilate nor absorb." Attention had not then been so much called to the danger of admission by another gate, that of foreign conquest, of millions of strange and inferior races, the assimilation of which would be more difficult still.

But the most striking, we might almost say astounding, thing in the Letters is the writer's handling of the Papacy. It was well known that Lord Acton was a Catholic of the Liberal school, one of the circle which, with Lacordaire and Montalembert, had undertaken the arduous work of reconciling submission to absolute authority over the soul with practical liberty of thought and action. He had stood forth as the ardent ally of Strossmayer and Döllinger against the Jesuit and the Jesuit-ridden supporters of Infallibility in the Vatican Council. But he was not, like Döllinger, cut off from the Church. He was never, so far as is known, threatened with excommunication. Nor was it generally doubted that he had lived and died in practice and doctrine a devout Catholic, and a faithful liegeman of the Papacy, though one of the moderate school. There was nothing to contradict this in his alliance with Mr. Gladstone, who was essentially a Catholic, hoping to restore, on the basis of moderate Catholicism, liberated from ultramontanism, the unity of Christendom. Such passages, therefore, as the following, which, to avoid any danger of misrepresentation, we give entire, astonish us, and cannot fail to astonish and even to horrify not only the ultramontane, but any believer in the Papacy as the headship of the spiritual world.

In a letter to Mr. Gladstone quoted in the Introduction, Lord Acton says:

"I have tried in vain to reconcile myself to your opinion that Ultramontanism really exists as a definite and genuine system of religious faith, providing its own solutions of ethical and metaphysical problems, and satisfying the conscience and the intellect of conscientious and intelligent men. It has never been my fortune to meet with an esoteric Ultramontane; I mean, putting aside the ignorant mass and those who are incapable of reasoning, that I do not know of a religious and educated Catholic who really believes that the See of Rome is a safe guide to salvation. . . . In short, I do not believe there are Catholics who, sincerely and intelligently, believe that Rome is right and that Döllinger is wrong. And, therefore, I think you are too hard on Ultramontanes, or too gentle with Ultramontanism. You say, for instance, that it promotes untruthfulness. I don't think that is fair. It not only promotes, it inculcates, distinct mendacity and deceitfulness. In certain cases, it is made a duty to lie. But those who teach this doctrine do not become habitual liars in other things" (pp. 63, 64).

"For there are many opinions, not only sanctioned but enforced by the authorities of the Church of Rome, which none can adhere to without peril to the soul. The moral risk on one side is greater than the dogmatic risk on the other. He can escape heresy in Anglicanism more easily than he can escape the ungodly ethics of the Papacy, the Inquisition, the Casuists, in the Roman Communion. The solicitation, the compulsion, will be made irresistible in the latter. A man who thought it wrong to murder a Protestant King would be left for hell by half the Conferences on the Continent. Montagu, Bramhall will not sap this man's Catholic faith so surely as the Spanish and Italian moralists will corrupt his soul" (pp. 233, 234).

"The Inquisition is peculiarly the weapon and peculiarly the work of the Popes. It stands out from all those things in which they coöperated, followed, or assented, as the distinctive feature of papal Rome. It was set up, renewed, and perfected by a long series of acts emanating from the supreme authority of the Church. No other institution, no doctrine, no ceremony, is so distinctly the individual creation of the Papacy, except the dispensing power. It is the principal thing with which the Papacy is identified, and by which it must be judged.

"The principle of the Inquisition is the Pope's sovereign power over life and death. Whosoever disobeys him should be tried and tortured and burnt. If that cannot be done, formalities may be dispensed with, and the culprit can be killed like an outlaw.

"That is to say, the principle of the Inquisition is murderous, and a man's opinion of the Papacy is regulated and determined by his opinion about religious assassination.

"If he honestly looks on it as an abomination, he can only accept the Primacy with a drawback, with precaution, suspicion, and aversion for its acts.

"If he accepts the Primacy with confidence, admiration, unconditional obedience, he must have made terms with murder.

"Therefore, the most awful imputation in the catalogue of crimes rests, according to the measure of their knowledge and their zeal, upon those whom we call Ultramontanes. The controversy, primarily, is not about problems of theology: it is about the spiritual state of a man's soul who is the defender, the promoter, the accomplice of murder. Every limitation of papal credit and authority which effectually dissociates it from that reproach, which breaks off its solidarity with assassins, and washes away the guilt of blood, will solve most other problems. At least, it is enough for my present purpose to say that blot is so large and foul that it precedes and eclipses the rest, and claims the first attention" (pp. 298-300).

If there were such a thing in the papal code as posthumous excommunication, the soul of Lord Acton would be in some peril. It certainly will lose the benefit of any masses that may have been purchased for it, and the payment for which may be still standing to its credit. Moreover, the present work will not miss the distinction, very gratifying to its publishers, of prompt insertion in the Index.

ACTUAL GOVERNMENT IN THE UNITED STATES.

Actual Government as Applied under American Conditions. By Albert Bushnell Hart. (American Citizen Series.) Longmans, Green & Co. 1903.

As appears from Mr. Hart's preface, and indeed throughout the volume, this is a descriptive work. It is designed for teachers and students as well as ordinary readers. He calls it "an attempt to describe the government as one might undertake to describe a great railroad." But as a great government is not only a working machine, but an historical growth, description involves some history, and this Mr. Hart gives *pari passu* with his description. The history and law, however, are kept in the background, the main object being description. This covers an encyclopædic field, *e. g.*, the individual and his personal rights, including citizenship; the whole frame of government, including the State and Federal Constitutional systems; suffrage; elections; party and machine organization; State and Union in their relation with one another; the State legislatures, executives, and courts; local government and its problems; Congress; the Presidency; the civil service; the Federal judiciary; land and land-holding; boundaries and annexations; Territories and colonies; taxation and finance; foreign intercourse; foreign commerce; war powers; the organization of commerce and transportation; education; religion; public morals, and public order. In view of the use contemplated above, there is also a short list of "a few of the most helpful books on American government," and a "select bibliography" on American government of some twenty pages. To our mind this bibliography is of little value as a guide. Essential books, such as the 'Federalist,' the Debates in the Convention, and Cushing's well-known Manual of the law and practice of legislative assemblies, are omitted, while, on the other hand, some 850 volumes of periodicals are referred to, including the entire series of 'Appletons' Cyclopædia,' the *Atlantic Monthly* and the *North American Review*. There is little trace of selection in the list.

Mr. Hart's essay in political description, of a kind not before attempted, is important, but it is written *currente calamo*, and the author appears to be indifferent on the score of accuracy. So long as he gives a general impression of the subject in hand, he cares little about the correctness of details. This is especially noticeable when he deals with legal subjects, and frequently results in great confusion; and as almost all government is in large part law, is a very serious defect in a manual for students and teachers. For instance, in his account of the English Habeas-Corpus Act, which contains the principle of habeas corpus imbedded in our system (p. 26), he describes it as providing that *any person who thinks that another is unjustly imprisoned* may sue out the writ. Fortunately for prisoners, the remedy is not so narrow. The writ must issue even if the person committed applies for it. In discussing the tariff (p. 401), he says that for many years passengers were allowed to bring in wearing apparel "suitable for the voyage." The quotation marks imply quotation from the statute; but this was not either its language or its meaning. By the old act, "*wearing-apparel and other personal effects* (not merchandise), not including articles not actually in use and necessary and appropriate for the use of such persons for the purposes of *their journey* and present comfort and convenience," were free of duty (Tariff of 1890, sec. 752). It

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was not the voyage, but the whole trip or journey; the difference is very great.

Again, at p. 524, in discussing the first great "Granger" case, Munn v. Illinois (94 U. S. 113), Mr. Hart says that the Granger movement was "checked" by this decision of the Supreme Court, and describes the judgment as being that any State regulation must be *reasonable*, and that the courts must judge whether a given rate is reasonable. Not only is this wrong, but the decision was exactly the opposite of what it is here stated to have been. The Court decided that the State of Illinois might fix the maximum of charges for storage of grain in warehouses; that the question was one "of power"; that what was reasonable compensation was a legislative and not a judicial question. So far from being a check to the Granger movement, this decision was its *magna charta*. If railroads can still look to the Federal courts for protection in these matters, it is owing to the issue of subsequent litigation, and in spite of Munn v. Illinois, not because of it. At page 357, in discussing Federal jurisdiction over "national forts and sites," Mr. Hart seems to leave the question of concurrent State criminal jurisdiction where he finds it; as a statement of law the passage is confused, and nothing more.

These instances, which have been taken almost at random, if they stood by themselves, might be of little importance; but Mr. Hart's indifference to accuracy is by no means confined to law: it runs through the whole book. Any one would suppose, from his account of the nominating system (p. 91), that "caucus" and "primary convention" were interchangeable terms. Unless caucus and primary are distinguished, it is impossible for the student to understand that the nominating system has undergone a vast change. The present congeries of nominating conventions has taken the place of the earlier order, in which, from 1800 to 1824, Presidents and Vice-Presidents were nominated by party *caucuses* of members of Congress. The earlier system was supposed to be undemocratic, because it was not representative, and was superseded by the latter. Mr. Hart's method of dealing with the subject suppresses the history, which is essential. When he writes about the "previous question" (p. 251), he confounds the previous with the *main* question, and speaks of a motion, so far as we know not hitherto even imagined by writers on parliamentary law, "that the previous question be now put." Oddly enough, not content with this, he displays the confusion in his own mind still further by adding that if this motion is carried in the affirmative, debate at once ceases, "and the 'previous'—*that is, the then pending — question must be voted* on."

In dealing with foreign affairs there is the utmost vagueness. On page 432 Mr. Hart twice states that we had a "war" with France in 1798. It is unpardonable in a publicist to describe these troubles as a "war" in the same breath with the war of 1812 and the Mexican war. The *Alabama* claims are disposed of (without being described further than as a "great international difficulty"—"the fitting out of Confederate cruisers in British ports") by saying that, after the civil war was over, the United States took up the "problem," and settled it "to its satisfaction." Our relations with Japan are summed up by saying that "in 1854 we broke in the crust of Japan and began trade with that country." This is of no use to a student, and is not supplemented by any account of the present treaties with Japan, by which extra-territoriality has been abandoned and Japan brought within the "family of nations." At page 376 the Monroe Doctrine is discussed. The writer of a book on "actual government" might have been expected to give the text of the Doctrine, but that is not Mr. Hart's way. He describes it as "some phases" of "the principle of special and paramount interest in American questions."

His account of the general foreign policy of the United States is very unsatisfactory. He gives two pages to a history of it (p. 431), and there was an excellent opportunity in such a book to exhibit it as a policy involving the substitution of arbitration for war in the settlement of disputes, freedom of expatriation and repatriation, and the support of neutral rights and duties. Whatever may be its future, no history of it is good for anything which does not give these points great prominence. We get no real history of it at all here. An instance of a very reckless use of language is the author's statement that the United States exercises "something like a protectorate" over Mexico, "not formally through the Government, but by the influence of American capital there," which "practically requires a guarantee from the Mexican Government" that order be maintained and property be respected. This is a strange sort of protectorate.

Mr. Hart is at his best in pure political description, and in this field he brings out or enforces points of importance. His fourth and fifth chapters on suffrage and elections, and party and machine, are favorable specimens of his work. What he says of the inevitable *predesignation* of favorites in any system of nomination (p. 110), of there being only one ultimate relief from the extreme evils of party organization (p. 111), and of the possibility of administering a rebuke to party leaders by staying at home (p. 111), is all good. In what he says about police (p. 575) he calls attention to a fact generally overlooked, but deserving of attention, that, except for the enforcement of liquor laws, no State has organized any system of centralized rural police, such as exists throughout England and all over the Continent.

The Life and Letters of Robert Lewis Dabney. By Thomas Cary Johnson. Richmond, Va.: The Presbyterian Committee of Publication. 1903.

In this volume of some six hundred pages is told the life story of a typical Virginian of the educated class, of the school bred under the economic and social conditions of the slave system, of which the spirit affected his whole body of thought upon theology as well as upon politics. For the old South had its peculiar atmosphere, quite unlike that of the North, created by the books it read or refrained from reading, and especially by the habitual classification of men into the born rulers and the born subjects.

Dr. Dabney was a Presbyterian theologian, with a genius for discussing with vigorous tongue or pen every other theme which pertained to the intellectual and social life of his neighbors. Born in 1820 and dying in 1898, his career covered most of the exciting debates and transactions of the rise and victory of the anti-slavery movement, around which gathered, also, many disturbances of the ecclesiastical world, for the Methodist and the Presbyterian churches fell asunder under the ferment of that great moral awakening of the nation which men of Dr. Dabney's type stoutly refused to recognize as having any moral or religious significance. For thirty years he was the head of a Presbyterian theological school, the Union Seminary of Hampden-Sidney College, an institution which he resurrected into considerable vigor from a long moribund state, but which afforded for him, as its most important work, a scholar's quiet for issuing a host of letters, articles for periodicals and books, chiefly upon subjects relating to his church and its confessions, but also covering questions of stirring interest in the domain of politics.

We are given here an entirely sympathetic, if sometimes possibly too eulogistic, account of his weighty influence in his native State, from which it appears that the term *conservative*, which is employed as a characteristic epithet for his attitude towards all problems, old and new, is quite too mild to describe a defiance of most of the views of the universe, philosophic, scientific and social, which have dominated and still control Christendom, under the Copernican astronomy and Darwin's conceptions of the development of life. His biographer, in a summary of the ideas for which he had fought for a full half-century, reports him as having been constantly

"at war with the atheistic and infidel theories of physical science which have so largely prevailed; with the various forms of evolution, anti-biblical in their essence; with Pelagianism in every form, and Unitarianism in every shade of theology. He knew that man was never evolved from the ape; that there was a radical, fundamental, and essential difference between a man's consciousness when suffering for sin and a dog's when chastised by his master for a fault in behavior. He knew that God created the world *ex nihilo*; for God has told us so in His Word. Materialism, Herbert Spencerianism, and agnosticism are equally false. He expected confidently in God's own time the re-vindication of Calvinism. His opposition to any change of the Westminster Confession of Faith was almost absolute."

It may be added that he unremittingly opposed the reunion of the Presbyterian churches North and South; and to him is ascribed a decisive influence, by his vehement eloquence, in rejecting every proposal of peace from the Northern presbyteries. As Dr. Van Dyke, a bearer of one such plea for harmony, expressed it, "He stripped every leaf from the olive branch and made of it a rod to beat us with." And the secret of this bitterness was not so much any shade of theoretical difference between the parties as the insistence with which Dr. Dabney held, from first to last, that slavery was divinely ordained, having its warrant in the Bible, and that the Northern churches had unpardonably insulted their Southern brethern before the separation by condemning slaveholding as inconsistent with Christianity. Oddly enough, this theological controversialist was invited in the spring of 1862 to become Stonewall

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Jackson's chief of staff—a function which he performed for the summer campaign, but which sickness compelled him soon to abandon. The chief fruit of that military experience was a somewhat furiously partisan life of Jackson, which has most of the defects of war history written from the standpoint of a Southerner who is in the thick of the prejudices of his class.

Altogether here is an impressive portrait, with all its virtues and blemishes, of an old-school Virginian to whom his native State was the fairest spot on earth, and his fellow-citizens of the slaveholding régime models of intelligence and manly virtue. His was undoubtedly an exceptionally strong intellect, and, the premises of the creed of his acceptance being granted, with the Bible as an inerrant guide to all truth, no man could put forward a stouter reason for rejecting every opinion based upon recent physical science or historical criticism. But Dr. Dabney belonged to an old order of faith and reason; his world from the first had been essentially provincial, as the world which defended negro slavery as divine and wise notably became alienated from most of the influences which have broadened the vision and sympathies of the rest of enlightened Christendom. The fact that men like him possessed unsullied integrity, severe conscientiousness, and utter lack of selfish ambition but added to the harm they were able to do by keeping their countrymen out of the great spiritual currents of the present century. They were essentially seventeenth or eighteenth century men.

Champlain, the Founder of New France. By Edwin Asa Dix, M.A., LL.B., formerly fellow in history of Princeton University. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. 1903. Pp. 246.

"What can the man do that cometh after the king? Even that which hath been already done." This utterance shows prophetic foresight of our authors who have written books about Champlain. His own narrative, penned by himself and printed while he lived, ranks among the best of unconscious autobiographies. In many ways it is analogous to the Anabasis of Xenophon. Each was the primitive reconnoissance of unknown races in a world unknown. The one has become a French classic as the other was a Greek. Parkman's life we may compare to the fullest abridgment of the ancient original, extending to well-nigh a hundred pages of Grote, while this latest effusion by Mr. Dix, and shorter volumes by Sedgwick and others, and the historic patches scattered in Winsor, Fiske, and the rest, are not unmixed with matters which, if not baser, distract attention from that continuous view of a single personality which a true biography exacts.

The original three volumes form a French pudding so rich in plums that no gatherer there has been able to carry them all away with him. The first comer naturally did his best to master the sweetest, and those who followed him, if not treading in his tracks, have snapped up trifles either unconsidered by the first gleaner, or considered by him irrelevant to his purpose, which was solely to paint his hero and his environment by characteristic touches. Mr. Dix's production seems a case in point.

A single typical example will make our meaning plain. Nineteen lines in Parkman comprise the entire existence of Madame Champlain from her first mention, a child of twelve, till her death about twenty years after that of her husband. Mr. Dix, on the other hand, consecrates a hundred lines and ten more to her marriage ceremony, with details as largely fanciful as sensational. In Sedgwick, a more brief abridger, these nuptials are granted more ample room than Parkman (whose book is much larger) gives to her whole career. The remark that Champlain's Hélène lacked the character and force to make her a real helpmeet, seems to be altogether Sedgwick's own, while Winsor holds that the marriage did not come off till ten years after the pompous function or phantasmagory.

We regard Mr. Dix's work as only an abridgment, notwithstanding his pages are no fewer than Parkman's. Our reason for thus classing it is not merely its diffuseness and peppering with condiments little needed except for claptrap, but for his scantiness of exact statements, dates, and index, and his maiming every chapter by leaving it without any itemized references to sources or key to its contents, both in the outset and all along to the end. Above all do we regret the inadequate treatment of cardinal points, as, for example, the relations of Champlain to the Jesuits and others who strove to rule or ruin him.

Parkman's 'Champlain,' a new departure in American historical narrative in 1865, within six years had reached its ninth edition, and roused for works of its class a popularity before unknown. It proved, among other surprises, that our Puritan ancestors had no sufferings to be compared with those of the first French Canadians, which nothing but French *bonhomie* could have lived through. It described a live-and-let-live policy, a *modus vivendi*, by which a superior race could settle among a weaker one and yet not destroy it. His offering was the result of patient and shrewd research at home and abroad, and led to the publication or reissue of not a few of his sources, which, if not manuscript, had become of extreme rarity. None of his contemporaries knew so much as he, through bitter experience, of that aboriginal world in the heart of which Champlain had founded New France and so laid its cornerstone that it still lives in the language, customs, and institutions of millions. He portrayed a character which readers know not whether to admire most as heroic or wise or good, greatly falling with his falling colony, but living to raise it into newness of life.

How much, at the end of forty years, has Mr. Dix added to Parkman? The first new things to strike the eye are pictorial—Champlain's wedding signature, his fifty-foot monument at Quebec, not erected till 1898, and two welcome portraits of him (one in his best years, and then as aging), though we are not told their provenance. The other five drawings—Quebec, St. Croix, and three fights with Iroquois—were all known to Parkman, but judged too puerile for reproduction, being such as a child of ten would draw, innocent of rudimentary regard to proportion and perspective. The youthful voyage to Central America, which Parkman had condensed into less than two pages, is expanded by Dix into eighteen, a chapter called "The Making of a Sailor." In order to gain verge enough for this Spanish episode, as well as for a panorama of European glories in the renascence during Champlain's first decades, there is a plentiful lack of a fitting introduction similar to Parkman's earliest adventures of the French themselves in the very quarter where Champlain's life and labors were to round out more than thirty years—above all, the traditional and historic possibilities of a pre-Columbian and pre-Cabotian discovery of America by Breton fishermen. The most thrilling addition in Dix is a single date, 1634, instead of 1639, as the year in which Nicollet, an explorer dispatched by Champlain, reached either a Wisconsin affluent of the Mississippi, or a river interosculating with it, and returned in time to gladden the last lingering illness of his great captain, and thus help him to depart in peace. How peculiarly this date was rectified with even legal proof, after Parkman wrote, we are not told, though we might have been, in a tithe of the space squandered on ad-captandum fancies or fringes.

Mr. Dix is a fascinating writer. Thanks to modernity or we know not what, in two readings we unawares came to his finis. Readers will thus often get as much from him as from Parkman, even when Parkman has given them more. It is praise enough for this most recent writer to place him in the front rank of the series of biographical followers who must all go behind the pioneer that blazed their way—the first American pathfinder and pathbreaker in the sphere of the father of New France.

Essays on Great Writers. By Henry Dwight Sedgwick, jr. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1903.

Such compulsory companionship among writers as we find in this volume inevitably yields one or two choice incompatibilities. Montaigne, Cervantes, Scott, and Thackeray can doubtless always forgather as men of the world, if not on a common ground of literary aims and ideals; elective affinities uniting Macaulay and D'Annunzio are not revealed through unexpected collocation. What brings these studies together is community of original appearance in a literary magazine, and an undeniably even-toned uniformity in the discussion of the respective places in literature of these famous men—from Mr. Sedgwick's point of view. His undisguised sympathies are chiefly with writers who use his own speech and frame their teaching in view of a high, yet worldly, purpose. The "kindling of enthusiasm for large causes," "power for good" (p. 39), would thus seem to be the fundamental, if not supreme, tests of the inherent worth of great literature. It is consequently without dismay that we fall (p. 231) on the otherwise disconcerting declaration: "Surely, there is more poetry in the making of the British Empire than was ever printed in France." Such a criterion might serve for a comic comparative study of the present poet laureate and Hugo.

Mr. Sedgwick's treatment of D'Annunzio is for this reason quite unsuited for serious critical discussion, inasmuch as the Italian novelist's ineradicable curiosity over pathological cases fills this transatlantic reader with equally incurable disgust and anger. D'Annunzio, as the most cursory reading will show, proceeds on the tacit

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assumption that relatively virtuous and sane characters are of distinctly less importance and interest, for purposes of novel-writing, than madmen or perverts—a proposition hardly entitled to rank among universally accepted canons of fiction either in Italy or elsewhere. Still, to any one who has read as much of his work as from Mr. Sedgwick's indignant comments might appear, the incisive satire of the would-be Juvenal should be obvious. Deeper-reaching criticism might go on to point out that great satirists do not, as a rule, dwell quite so complacently on the merely voluptuous. The incongruous union (not blending) of a sharply observant satirical nature with a Southern temperament passionately exuberant has resulted in an amorphous product, interesting to placid critics, and safe enough for persons whose moral equilibrium is sufficiently stable to stand the shock of a book. But the sad-colored spectacles of the conventional moralist at his easy task obscure for him the real intensity of artistic qualities which rudimentary good taste usually prefers to discover elsewhere. And, strangely enough, several of the earlier works of D'Annunzio are themselves far more convincing examples "of the vain struggles of the primary instincts against the moral nature of man" than the two foremost illustrations that Mr. Sedgwick goes out of his way to select; for we confess to some surprise at seeing (p. 63) "Œdipus Tyrannus" and 'The Scarlet Letter' specially designated as verifying the triumph of any *moral* principle. Similarly unguarded assertions are found in the essay on Macaulay. How can any one who has read such of his letters as Sir George Trevelyan saw fit to publish, declare that Macaulay "never had the education of a great private, personal emotion"? We are also informed that "he never was in love; he never comprehended the meaning of religion" (p. 158)—apparently because he prudently kept silence on both topics.

In the essay entitled "Some Aspects of Thackeray," Mr. Sedgwick sets forth his own social and artistic convictions with a plumpness born of confidence in their strength. His estimate of the great worldly philosopher's work rests on the à-priori premises already referred to, that high purposes and a positive faith are the essentials. In both these respects Thackeray is found wanting. He impassively waived the deeper issues of philosophical and religious inquiry. "He is never . . . disturbed by any scheme of metaphysics" (p. 335); "Thackeray lacked the poet's eye; he could not see, and was not troubled" (p. 341); "Thackeray is not a democrat" (p. 342). All which is very true, but totally irrelevant if we can but accept an artist's nature as his Maker and the world together have fashioned it towards variety and individuality in art. Nevertheless, Thackeray had his own faith in nobility of personal character, in all things tending to great ideals of life and conduct, though not connected with the shadowy schemes of expansionism and chimerical personal equality. He would, indeed, have been the last of men to entertain the social-democratic idea here described as a "wish to have a ready channel from man to man through which the emotional floods of life can pour" (p. 343). We may hope that, even in a republic, there still remain some few who understand the results of his classic self-restraint and dignity. As to the hackneyed charge that his women are all fools or knaves, the rebuttal is ready in the persons of Mary Titmarsh, Madame de Florac, and Ethel Newcome. Again, if "Sir Pitt Crawley, Jos. Sedley, the struggle over Miss Crawley, Harry Foker, the Chevalier de Florac . . . are all in the realm of farce" (p. 337), surely a very thin partition divides its bounds from reality.

In "English and French Literature" the reader must not expect to find a judicial comparison of their respective merits; on the contrary, the exultant confidence in the unapproachable superiority of Anglo-Saxondom and its products inspires throughout a note like the chortle of a jubilant mother at a baby show. We can have no quarrel with the candor that inveighs against sham or borrowed admiration in literature; we are as fully aware as Mr. Sedgwick of the bogus quality in much pretentious cosmopolitanism; but the damaging admission of a resolve to read foreign literatures through English or American prejudice removes the subject from the region of argument by reducing every expression of opinion on his part to the more or less entertaining fact of a private preference. "What English-speaking person in his heart thinks that any French poet is worthy to loose one shoe-latchet in the poet's corner of English shoes?" (p. 204). Careful study of the best French prose might perhaps suggest a more effective use of suitable metaphor; it is difficult to guess how the logic might be mended when we read, as the summary of the contention, that "men who have thrown off the bias of nationality have disqualified themselves for the task"—in other words, the only comparative criticism of any weight is to come from those who deliberately shut their eyes to all qualities save those they had rather see. What we are in this dogmatic way called upon to admire is the "audacious spirit" or "adventurous capacity" in English writers, which their French rivals, it seems, have failed to develop because of their fondness for Paris and its reputed "classical benches." The whole passage (pp. 220-1) in which this strange specimen of argumentation is presented is remarkable as containing the closest-piled question-begging we have met with for long months. Want of "audacity" seems perversely inapplicable to the literature which for two hundred years has been almost a synonym for brilliant innovation; but the examples here quoted stop with Corneille, of whom it is casually remarked that he "has the nobleness of a *jeune fille*." The absence of the adventurous spirit renders it impossible for the French to plant colonies, for, "wreck them on a desert island, Villon will pick blackberries, Ronsard will skip stones, Montaigne whittle, etc." Here again the pleading is unfortunate, since not only is France to-day the second colonizing power in Europe, but one of the most striking characteristics of her explorers and travellers is a well-nigh unrivalled adaptability and inventiveness when thrown on their own resources, unhampered by bureaucracy, in an untrodden country. Nay, more: if Mr. Sedgwick had chosen to look for examples elsewhere than among the comparatively few men who support his thesis, he might have found, at random, an ample tale of French writers of distinction, with capacity for practical activity as well, notably Molière, Voltaire, Bossuet, Beaumarchais, Chateaubriand, Guizot, Thiers. Systematic prejudice and paradox have their uses; not, however, as aids to literary criticism in any sense deserving such honorable designation.

The Haymarket Theatre: Some Records and Reminiscences. By Cyril Maude. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1903.

Of all existent theatres in London only two, Drury Lane and Covent Garden, are so intimately associated with the history of the legitimate British drama as the little house in the Haymarket. The present building dates only from 1820, but its predecessor, on an adjacent site, was opened almost exactly one hundred years earlier, and flourished, with the ordinary vicissitudes of theatrical fortune, until the new Theatre Royal was ready to take its place, so that, practically, the story of the two houses is one and covers a period of nearly two centuries. During this time the stage of one or the other was trodden by nearly all the most famous players on the scroll of theatrical fame, from the rascally Theophilus Cibber down to Mr. Beerbohm Tree; and it would scarcely be an exaggeration to say that the history of the Haymarket Theatre, since its foundation, corresponds with that of the British stage. Any reader expecting to find any such comprehensive review in this volume will be grievously disappointed, but if he be an amateur, unfamiliar with theatrical literature, he will be well entertained by a copious collection of anecdotes, culled from various textbooks, which are just as good now as when they were first printed. To do Mr. Maude justice, it must be admitted that he makes no pretence of being either student, critic or historian, or anything more than a retailer of gossip. He apologizes incessantly (not by any means unnecessarily) for his innumerable sins of omission and commission, and is so evidently conscious of his own deficiencies that he disarms serious criticism; but it is permissible to wonder why he should have undertaken to explore a mine of such wealth if he meant to be contented with the observations of earlier investigators.

It would not be reasonable, perhaps, to look in a superficial work of this sort for new or rare material concerning the earlier theatre. Mr. Maude chatters pleasantly enough about Charlotte Clarke, Foote, Garrick, Macklin, Bannister, Palmer, Shuter, Elizabeth Farren, the Kembles, the elder Mathews, Theodore Hook, and other notabilities, but all his anecdotes are hoary. To the two Colemans he devotes a little more space, and quotes some figures which indicate that actors and playwrights as well as the manager reaped considerable profits in the eighteenth century. Foote, for instance, drew more than £1,500 from the Haymarket treasury in 1777 in six months, although he acted for only a week. Considering the relative value of money, this compares very favorably with modern incomes. The rent of the theatre at that time was £200 a year. To the elder Coleman belongs the honor of having organized the first stock company at the Haymarket. The younger, in the later days of his career, was Examiner of Plays, and exhib-

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ited much ingenuity and unscrupulousness in multiplying the fees of that office. He used to exact a separate fee of two guineas for every new song, glee or overture introduced at a benefit performance, and thereby turned what no doubt seemed to him a pretty penny. But one actor was too clever for him. He strung together all his songs, recitations, imitations, etc., in play form, and managed to get a license for them in bulk, as if they were a single piece. This must have been the origin of the modern farce comedy. According to some extracts from an old Haymarket diary or log-book, of which more would have been welcome, it appears that there was mighty little discipline among the members of the company. Both actors and actresses seem to have absented themselves at their own sweet will, and not infrequently one or more of the pieces on the programme could not be performed because important players were in the vocative. The closing days of the little theatre were the most brilliant, when Elliston, Liston, and Young, "Dicky" Suett, Dowton, Munden, Kelly, Mrs. Glover, and others scarcely less famous, constituted a veritable galaxy of talent. Mr. Maude, in writing of them, draws freely from the pages of Charles Lamb and other familiar authorities. The extracted matter is good, but not an improvement upon the original. It is, however, infinitely superior to the trivial and often silly stuff with which Mr. Maude has filled the latter half of his book, which deals with the eighty years of the present Haymarket Theatre. With the drama, with acting, with the history of the house it has almost nothing to do. He gives the names of most of the eminent nineteenth-century players, from Madame Vestris to Mr. Beerbohm Tree, and mentions a few plays, but has scarcely a line of description, criticism, or intelligent comment, and nothing remotely resembling a comprehensive or consecutive sketch. He furnishes no lists of characters, plays, companies, or authors, attempts no comparisons of acting or managements, but confines himself to an occasional empty generality, and fills up the intervals with foolish stage stories, paltry personal anecdote, pleasant references to fellow-actors and critics, ebullitions of gratified pride at being the manager of so illustrious a temple of the drama, and other irrelevant balderdash. Although a good many pages are devoted to Benjamin Webster—one of the most powerful and versatile actors of modern times, called the English Lemaître—and to Benjamin Buckstone, who ruled the Haymarket gloriously for more than a generation and made it known the world over as the English home of high and low comedy, there is nothing in his book, except the portraits, to show what manner of men they were. The fact that he is not old enough to have had much personal knowledge of either can hardly be accepted as a justification of Mr. Maude's presuming to write about them. At least he might have published a few casts of some of the many old comedies in which Compton, Chippendale, Howe, Coe, Widdicombe, Buckstone, and others won some of the most substantial and artistic triumphs known to the London stage of the nineteenth century. The true story of the Haymarket is yet to be written, and it is to be hoped that some day a competent theatrical student will undertake the task.

History of the Commercial and Financial Relations between England and Ireland from the period of the Restoration. By Alice Effie Murray. London: P. S. King & Son.

It is unusual to find a subject such as that described in the title of this book handled by a woman. Miss Murray had a distinguished career at Girton College, was elected to a research studentship at the London School of Economics, and was one of the first woman students to obtain a doctorate in economics and political science. Her book is a useful and serious contribution to the history of the lamentable relations between England and Ireland, of special value to Irishmen as being written by an English student, and evidencing industry, care, and appreciation of economic facts.

It is a common complaint of Englishmen that the Irish are continually lamenting over the past and admitted misgovernment of Ireland instead of addressing themselves to making the best of the present conditions; but, as Mr. Hewins in the preface says, "there is no subject on which we [English] are more ignorant, or the study of which is more likely to correct extravagant views of British genius." Miss Murray shows that the present backward condition of Ireland and relative decline are largely due to causes long at work, the effects of which persist though the immediate causes have disappeared. The object of her book is to give a plain historical account of the commercial and financial relations between England and Ireland during the last 250 years, and to show how those relations have reacted on the history of the two countries and their political life.

After the Cromwellian wars Ireland was little better than a wilderness. The estimated population was 1,100,000, of whom 300,000 were English and Scotch adventurers and settlers, to whom the greater part of the land had been assigned on its confiscation from the former owners. The Protestants possessed three-quarters of the land, five-sixths of the housing, and two-thirds of what foreign trade there was. The native population was in a condition of the greatest misery, subjected to the degrading and demoralizing effects of the penal laws, and were kept so for over 200 years.

To the restrictions placed on the cattle trade, the provision trade, the woollen, cotton, glass, and other smaller industries Miss Murray ascribes the destitution, repeated famines, and misery that prevailed without intermission, as well as the present relatively backward condition of Ireland. To these were superadded the effects of the land system and the penal laws, "more subtly degrading and more demoralizing to the character of the people than the bloodthirsty enactments in France or Spain against the Protestants"; laws, in the words of Edmund Burke, "as well fitted for the impoverishment and degradation of a people, and the debasement in them of human nature itself, as ever proceeded from the perverted ingenuity of man." While export and import duties, sometimes absolute prohibition, killed trade and industry, exportation of the inhabitants was compelled or encouraged. After the Cromwellian wars "thousands of young men, boys, and girls had been sent off as slaves to the Barbadoes and Jamaica." "Between 1725 and 1728, 4,200 men, women, and children were shipped off to the West Indies alone." In such circumstances the Irish revenue was quite insufficient for the wants of the country. Small as it was, it was burdened with "an enormous pension list, of which only a very small part was given to persons resident in Ireland." All the remunerative offices in the Government, Church, and army were in the hands of Englishmen who hardly ever set foot in the country. "Pensions to Kings' favorites, and sinecure offices of all kinds, not only ground down the people by unnecessary taxes, but also perverted the morals of the upper class of Irishmen." Among those in receipt of pensions on the Irish Establishment were the Countess of Walsingham £1,200, the Countess of Lippic £1,200, Lady Betty Waldegrave £800, Lady Kilmansegg £1,250, Countess of Bellamont £1,500, Princess Amelia £1,000, Princess Augusta £5,000, Lady Yarmouth £4,000, the Queen of Denmark £3,000. Many of these pensions were, in the words of Archbishop King, "for services that, though very obliging to the person who gave the pension, yet were not proper to be alleged as motives in the grant."

The volunteer movement and Grattan's declaration of Irish rights were largely due to the effect produced on the minds of Irishmen by the American war of independence. The popular feeling in favor of free trade for Ireland was shown not only by the excitement and speeches all over the country; the volunteer artillery paraded in College Green with the motto on their cannon, "Free Trade or a Speedy Revolution." Following the example of the American colonies, "non-importation leagues" had been established all over the country. In Dublin an association of ladies resolved "that we will not wear any article that is not the product or manufacture of this country, and that we will not permit the addresses of any of the other sex who are not equally zealous in the cause of this country."

The renunciation of the legislative and judicial supremacy of the British Parliament in 1783 was followed by a short period of general prosperity in trading and industrial matters. Real free trade existed. Customs were looked on as a means of raising revenue, not of affording protection. As compared with duties still levied in England, those in Ireland were infinitely lighter, though different trades clamored from time to time for protection. The financial provisions of the Union were grossly unfair to Ireland, and proved even more unfair than had been anticipated. There was an enormous increase in the separate debt of Ireland. The amalgamation of the English and Irish Exchequers in 1826, and the imposition of indiscriminate taxation on two countries whose wants and circumstances were wholly dissimilar, was disastrous to Ireland. The poverty and misery of the Irish people culminated in 1848, and since then there has been a decrease in population from 8½ to less than 4½ millions. The greatest increase in the permanent taxation of Ireland, which was gradually assimilated to that of Great Britain, took place between 1853 and 1860; and since then, for what are called imperial purposes, taxation is practically the same on individuals in both countries.

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As no separate records of the trade and commerce of the two countries have been kept since 1826, it is impossible to make any comparison between the two countries based on figures of exports and imports. Miss Murray recognizes fully the excessive burden of imperial and local taxation on the declining population of Ireland, but is inclined to look on this as a question between classes, not between the two countries as separate financial entities:

"The huge expenditure on Irish services," she says, "lies in the political and social condition of Ireland and the fact that the Government is really not conducted on a peace footing. A large number of soldiers is always kept in the country—their cost is reckoned as 'Irish services'—while the Royal Irish constabulary is in reality a standing army, and the most expensive police force in the world."

In the concluding chapters she exaggerates enormously the beneficial work of the new Agricultural Department and the Congested Districts Board, as well as the importance of some minor industries conducted partly or wholly as philanthropic enterprises. One example of this may be given: "Basket work is carried on as a cottage industry in several places; at Letterfrack in Connemara the industry is especially flourishing." This industry was started about fifteen years ago by an Englishwoman, Miss Sophia Sturge, and is carried on in a small iron building where probably there were never more than ten workers at one time. Miss Sturge learned the trade thoroughly, and turned out some excellent workmen, one of whom is said to be now doing a good business in the trade at Pittsburgh. After nine years' devoted work, Miss Sturge's health broke down, and the industry in the hands of a manager has almost ceased to be what it was under Miss Sturge's management—a useful technical school for a very small number of boys. It is difficult to buy basket work of any description in Dublin that has not come from England or France, and as a commercial undertaking Letterfrack basketmaking has never been a success.

As a whole, Miss Murray's book is unique; crammed with facts vouched by reference to the original documents—acts of Parliament, Parliamentary papers, official statistical returns—and illustrated by quotations from contemporary observers and writers during the whole period treated. The list of authorities named in the bibliography extends to twenty-two pages; there is a good index; the type is excellent. The labor must have been enormous, and the student of Irish questions has a book of great interest and of real value for reference.

Pewter Plate: A Historical and Descriptive Handbook. By H. J. L. J. Massé, M.A. With 100 illustrations. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1904. Imperial 8vo, pp. xxi., 299.

Pewter, a mixture of tin with other alloys, generally a small proportion of lead, was an important metal in the domestic economy of nations for several centuries. It took the place of "trenchers treene" and wooden platters, eventually to give way to the cheaper and more easily cleaned vessels of pottery and glass. This handbook is the first to be published on the subject, in the English language at all events, following closely the issue of Mr. Welch's 'History of the Pewterers' Company' of London, to the year 1760; and to the touch plates illustrated in that work Mr. Massé has compiled a much-needed index. After explaining that the custom of recasting damaged vessels instead of repairing them was the cause of the disappearance of much old pewterware, Mr. Massé traces the etymology of the word pewter, referring to the laxity of its use in German and French under the term tin, just as copper and brass are classed together in the French *cuivre*. The sources of tin and lead are given, also a table of the various alloys which make up the several grades of pewter and Britannia metal (which is only a pewter of good quality, containing no lead). The history, ordinances, and troubles of the craft in many countries precede a description of the various vessels and the mode of their manufacture. The ware was mostly cast, to be finished sometimes by hand, sometimes by turning in a lathe. "In early times the moulds belonged to the craft guild or fellowship, and were lent to the brethren who required them, provided they knew how to make proper use of them." Many of these moulds are preserved in various museums, and the old spoon moulds of colonial days are to be found in those of this country. Domestic and church utensils are fully described and illustrated, with copious extracts from wills and inventories. Nor does the author neglect the cleaning and repairing of pewter, furnishing instructions as to removing scratches and indentations.

The most interesting chapter to the collector is that on "Pewter Marks." Whether there was any common mark of the London Pewterers' Company is not quite clear; the rose crowned, which is found also on Scotch, Flemish, Dutch, French, and German wares, and the X crowned, were stamped on the goods, not by the Pewterers' Company, but by the craftsmen themselves. The maker was compelled to register or strike his *touch* on the plate at the Hall, sometimes with his name at length, with or without a date, according to the regulations then in force. It will be evident that in most cases only an approximate date can be given to pewter vessels, as there were no yearly letters like those used by the silversmiths. The small imitation hall-marks used in addition to the maker's touch were copies of silver marks; the leopard's head, the lion rampant, and a figure of Britannia being most common. That there was always friction between the London goldsmiths and pewterers is certain. In the records of 1635, complaint is made to the Lords of the Council of pewter marked like silver, which resulted in the pewterers receiving "the order from the Lord Maior and Court of Aldren concerning the strikeing of the Marke proper to the Goldsmithes."

An inventory of the principal works to be found in the museums of Europe is given, followed by a list of touches from the five touch-plates preserved at Pewterers' Hall; miscellaneous English and foreign marks, in alphabetical order; a list of foreign makers; a bibliography (unfortunately omitting the many interesting articles published in periodicals); and finally a list of Freemen up to 1824, the date at which the last touch was struck on the plate at the Hall and the trade of pewterer had practically ceased.

Mr. Massé is to be thanked for this interesting book on an ancient craft, now extinct, or at least moribund, and of which so little has hitherto been known. For a future edition he asks for rubbings of marks, and it is to be hoped that these may be produced in facsimile by some photographic process, without trusting to descriptions alone, as in the present work.

Vieilles Maisons, Vieux Papiers. (Paris Révolutionnaire.) Par G. Lenôtre. Deuxième série. Perrin: Paris. 1903.

Those who know something of the older Paris and of its Revolutionary days will discover much fascinating diversion, and not a little instruction, in M. Lenôtre's new series of stories forming the second volume of his 'Paris Révolutionnaire.' Like the earlier collection, this is made up of painstaking studies of the minor characters who either do not appear upon the ordinary historian's stage or are named and vanish. And yet these personages are sometimes pathetic victims of the tragedy, and occasionally they play an important if obscure part. For example, here is the Abbé de Cajamano, who figured in the strange Malet conspiracy of 1812. Pasquier, who as prefect of the police barely escaped being a victim of the conspiracy, refers to him simply as a Spanish priest, and adds that a vain search was made for him after the arrest of the chief conspirators. This priest is the subject of one of M. Lenôtre's most interesting studies, which incidentally throws some light on the conspiracy itself. The story is based upon the *dossier* of the affair preserved in the National Archives. The sequel shows that in this instance Pasquier's memory was at fault, for the Abbé was not only arrested, but tried, and imprisoned until the return of the Bourbons. He was one of those poor creatures practised upon by the malignity of fortune, so dumbly innocent that when he did not stumble into the toils of a real conspiracy he was treated as too suspicious-looking a person to be trusted outside of La Force.

Another figure, fantastic, burlesque were it not real, is the Baron de Géramb, who suddenly appeared in London in 1810, and confided to the ministry his project of throwing upon the French coast an army made up of deserters from the foreign regiments serving under Napoleon. He explained that he had already armed and equipped 24,000 Croats, whom he offered to deliver at cost, including transportation to London. The Government finally deported him to Denmark, whence he was extradited to Paris and shut up in Vincennes as a supposed English spy. He ended his days as *procureur-général* of the order of Trappists. Nearly all the other sketches describe men or women of the Revolution—Madame Fouquier-Tinville, the carpenter Simon and his wife, who for a time had the care of the Dauphin, Madame Hébert, "la mère Duchesne," and others. One of the most curious chapters, describing the career of an Englishman named Greive, tells how Madame DuBarry came to be arrested and sent to the guillotine. According to M. Lenôtre's theory of the evidence, this man had been concerned in the stealing of her diamonds, and, to cover up the crime, decked himself out as an "enragé" Jacobin, and hounded her systematically until she perished on the scaffold. It should be noted that while M. Lenôtre's interpretation of the facts in such a case may be questioned,

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his method of investigation is sound and exact, resting upon official records either in the National Archives, the archives of the police, or in other similar collections. As he is a successful dramatist, he has a strong sense for the points of a story.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Lyman. The Great Companion. The Outlook Co. $1 net.
Annual Literary Index, 1903. The Publishers' Weeky.
Baedeker, Karl. Northern Germany (fourteenth revised edition, $2.40 net); and Central Italy (fourteenth revised edition, $2.25 net). Leipzig: Karl Baedeker; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.
Ball, J. Dyer. Things Chinese. Fourth edition, revised and enlarged. Charles Scribner's Sons. $4 net.
Burton-Brown, E. Recent Excavations in the Roman Forum, 1898-1904. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 net.
Chamberlin, Thomas C., and Salisbury, Rollin D. Geology. In 2 vols. Vol. I.—Geologic Processes and their Results. (American Science Series.) Henry Holt & Co. $4 net.
Dove's Theory of Human Progression, with memoir by Alexander Harvey. Twentieth Century Press. $1.
Early Western Travels, 1748-1846. Reprints of contemporary volumes, edited by Reuben Gold Thwaites. 31 vols. Vol. I., 1748-1764. Cleveland, O.: The Arthur H. Clark Co. $4 net.
Elson, Louis C. The History of American Music. (History of American Art Series.) The Macmillan Co. $5 net.
Engelmann, Richard. Pompeii. Translated by Talfourd Ely. Famous Art Cities; No. 1. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.
Fields, Mrs. James T. Charles Dudley Warner. (Contemporary Men of Letters Series.) McClure, Phillips & Co.
Fraser, Mrs. Hugh. Letters from Japan. The Macmillan Co. $3 net.
Hadden, J. Cuthbert. Chopin. (The Master Musicians Series.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
Hall, William Edward. International Law. 5th ed. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. $6.
Handy Reference Atlas of the World. Edited by J. G. Bartholomew. 7th ed. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50 net.
Haweis, H. R. Parsifal. (Story and Analysis.) Funk & Wagnalls Co. 40 cents net.
Jhering, Rud. von. Law in Daily Life. Translated from the German, with notes and additions, by Henry Goudy. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Kloss, Waldemar. Lyra Germanica Latina. St. Louis, Mo.: Office der Amerika; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
McFadyen, John Edgar. The Messages of the Psalmists. (Vol. V. of Messages of the Bible.) Charles Scribner's Sons.
Michelson, Miriam. In the Bishop's Carriage. (Fiction.) Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Co.
Nicholson, Edward Williams Byron. Keltic Researches. London and New York: Henry Frowde. 21s. net.
Paulding, Charles P. Condensation of Steam in Covered and Bare Pipes. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2 net.
Payne, John. Songs of Consolation. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co. Ltd.
Reeves, Alfred G. Special Subjects of the Law of Real Property. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Sanborn, Arthur W. Young America in the Hands of his Friends. (Political drama.) Boston: James H. West Co. 75 cents.
Sargent, Prof. C. S. Trees and Shrubs. Part III. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5 net.
Sherwood, Margaret. The Story of King Sylvain and Queen Aimée. The Macmillan Co.
Sichel, Walter. Disraeli. London: Methuen & Co. 12s. 6d. net.
Sturgis, Julian. The Prime Minister's Pamphlet. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
The Young Missionary. The Life of Annie Kennard Downie, by her mother. Philadelphia: American Baptist Pub. Soc.
Turgénieff, Iván. Novels and Stories. Translated by Isabel F. Hapgood. Vol. VII., Smoke; and Vols. VIII. and IX., Virgin Soil. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2 net per vol.
Weaver, Rufus Washington. The Christian Conversationalist. Philadelphia: American Baptist Pub. Soc. 50 cents net; postage 6 cents.
Williams, C. F. Abdy. The Story of the Organ. (The Music Story Series.) London: The Walter Scott Pub. Co., Ltd.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25 net.

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